DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 283 398 FL 016 796

TITLE	Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT) Journal, Volume 8, 1986-1987.
INSTITUTION	Japan Association of Language Teachers.
PUB DATE	Jul 87
NOTE	258p.; Alternatively called "The JALT Journal." Also a special supplement of "The Language Teacher."
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Serials (022)
JOURNAL CIT	JALT Journal; v8 n1-2 Nov 1986-Jul 1987
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC11 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Cognitive Style; College Students; Communicative Competence (Languages); *English (Second Language); *Error Patterns; Evaluation Criteria; Eye Contact; Grammar; Higher Education; *Intercultural Communication; Language Role; Language Teachers; Nonverbal Communication; Response Style (Tests); Second Language Instruction; Second Language Learning; *Student Attitudes; *Student Teachers; Teaching Guides; Teaching Styles; Verbs; *Writing Instruction; Writing Processes
IDENTIFIERS	Americans (United States); Error Correction (Language); *Japanese People

ABSTRACT

This document consists of the two volume 8 issues of "The JALT Journal," containing the following articles: "The Acquisition of English Interrogatives by a Japanese Speaker" (Yoko Shimada); "Evaluating Teachers' Guides: Do Teachers' Guides Guide Teachers?" (Hywel Coleman); "Teaching and Learning Styles of ESL Student Teachers" (Christine Uber Grosse); "Teaching Writing as a Process of Communication at the Tertiary Level" (Michele Chan); "Second Language Learning Errors: Their Types, Causes and Treatment" (Hanna Touchie); "Response Styles of Japanese and American College Students" (Frances Horler, Junichi Yamazaki); "A Study of Nonverbal Intercultural Communication between Japanese and Americans--Focusing on the Use of the Eyes" (Takahiko Hattori); "Sources of Error: The Third Person Singular Present in Japanese Learner English" (Neville Saunders); "Development of Pragmatic Competence by Japanese Learners of English" (Tomoko Takahashi, Leslie Beebe); and "English as an International Language (EIL): Smith's Philosophy of English for Intercultural Communication" (Yukihiro Nakayama). Book reviews and proceedings from a November 1986 JALT conference held in Hamamatsu (Japan) are also included. (MSE)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

ISSN 0287-2420

THE Language Teacher

全国語学教育学会

NOVEMBER 1986

¥750

THE JAPAN ASSOCIATION OF LANGUAGE TEACHERS

JALT

特別増刊号

ED283398

JALT JOURNAL 8.1

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

T. Robb

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

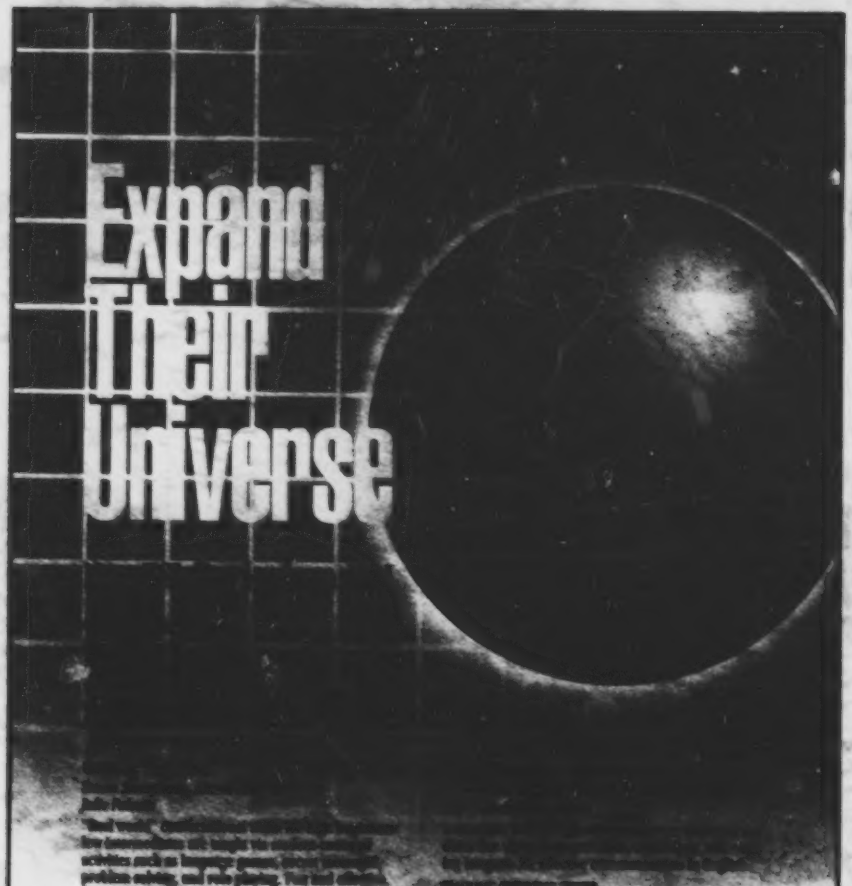
FL016996

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.



HANDBOOKS

The Harbrace ESL Workbook

Sheila Y. Graham and Wynn J. Cavitt

A special form of the Harbrace College Workbook designed especially to help ESL students with English composition. Problem areas, such as two-word verbs and the position of pronouns, are covered in all new exercises, presented in context.

Gateway

Jean Pace

Helps ESL students prepare to read and write at the college level in a variety of academic disciplines, not just English. Includes readings from standard academic textbooks followed by intensive exercises in reading comprehension, dictionary and vocabulary drills, and college writing.

HBJ HARCOURT BRACE JOVANOVICH JAPAN, INC.

ハーコート・ブレイス・ヨヴァノヴィッチ・ジャパン

〒102 東京都千代田区飯田橋3-11-13 豊国ビル

電 話：(03)234－1527　　ファックス：(03)234－0722

The Language Teacher Special Supplement

Japan Association of Language Teachers JOURNAL

VOLUME 8
NUMBER 1
NOVEMBER, 1986

THE JALT JOURNAL

Volume 8, No. 1 November, 1986

Contents

Yoko Shimada
The Acquisition of English Interrogatives by a Japanese Speaker 1

Hywel Coleman
Evaluating Teachers' Guides: Do Teachers' Guides Guide Teachers? 17

Christine Uber Grosse
Teaching and Learning Styles of ESL Student Teachers 37

Michele Chan
Teaching Writing as a Process of Communication at the Tertiary Level 53

Hanna Touchie
Second Language Learning Errors: Their Types, Causes and Treatment 75

Frances Horler and Junichi Yamazaki
Response Styles of Japanese and American College Students 83

Book Reviews Section 91

Call for Papers 106

THE JALT JOURNAL

The Journal of the Japan Association of Language Teachers

Editors:

Richard Berwick
Kobe University of Commerce

Andrew Wright
Nagoya University

Editorial Advisory Board

Karen Campbell
Aichi Prefectural University

David Dinsmore
Lancaster University

Daniel Evans
Nanzan University

John Fanselow
Teachers College
Columbia University

Nancy Hildebrandt
McGill University

Michael Horne
Nagoya University

Michael Joy
Johnson Company, Ltd.

Teruyuki Kume
Kobe University of
Foreign Studies

Paul La Forge
Nanzan Junior College

Charles Wordell
Tsukuba University

JALT OFFICERS – 1986

NATIONAL OFFICERS

President, Jim White
Vice President, Tatsuya Komatsu
Treasurer, Ruth Vergin
Recording Secretary, David Hough
Programs, Steve Brown
Membership, Keiko Abe
Public Relations, Kohei Takubo

* * * * *

Executive Secretary, Tom Robb
Publications Board Chairperson, Virginia LoCastro
The Language Teacher Editor, Deborah Foreman-Takano

CHAPTERS

Sapporo, Torkil Christensen
Sendai, Marc Helgesen
Yamagata, Paul Stern
Ibaraki, Jim Patten
Omiya, David Burger
Chiba, Margaret Otake
Tokyo, David Hough
Yokohama, Keiko Abe
Shizuoka, John Laing
Hamamatsu, Richard Caves
Nagoya, Lynne Roecklein
Kyoto, William Furbush
Osaka, Edward Lastiri
Kobe, Sonia Yoshitake
Okayama, Marie Shimane
Hiroshima, Deborah Foreman-Takano
Tokushima, Noriko Tojo
Takamatsu, Phillis Manning
Matsuyama, Marin Burch Tanaka
Fukuoka, Richard Dusek
Nagasaki, Sarah Lindsay
Okinawa, Tatsuo Taira

IN THIS ISSUE. . . . . .

**YOKO SHIMADA describes how her daugher, June, acquired English interrogatives during an 11-month period spanning 1983 and 1984. The author notes that the question-answer pattern is a fundamental of communication and reports a "striking similarity between [June's] developmental stages [for interrogatives] and those of English monolingual children." Single case studies in second language acquisition are getting rarer these days (the recent interest in diary studies as a form of SLA methodology notwithstanding) so we are pleased to return to a research tradition so well pursued by Hakuta and others.

**HYWEL COLEMAN makes a valuable contribution to a largely neglected area in English language instructional planning, namely critical examination of the suitability of teachers' guides for use by non-native speakers of English. Coleman notes several problems during his discussion: almost nothing in the literature on teachers' guides by writers of teachers' guides or reviewers of English language teaching materials, odd or unsupportable assumptions about language, language learning, language teaching and culture which frequently find their way into teachers' guides, and lack of criteria for critically evaluating the guides – a problem which he rectifies in the article.

**CHRISTINE UBER GROSSE looks at teacher training from the interesting perspective of teaching and learning styles among ESL student teachers. The implication here is that teaching and learning styles may be usefully matched between teachers and learners of a language but that it is going to be necessary first to develop profiles of teachers' styles. Based on her research the author outlines a general

profile among the sample group of teacher-trainees. One interesting finding is that teachers apparently have quite different approaches to learning and teaching, preferring, as learners, to have better student-teacher relations and learner-centered presentations and, as teachers, to maintain control and structure in the classroom.

**One of the major challenges facing college level and adult ESL/EFL teachers is construction and implementation of a good writing syllabus. MICHELE CHAN outlines how her unit at the Chinese University of Hong Kong handles this challenge in a way which applies the best research on teaching writing to what the learners' do in their writing classroom. The author stresses the importance of writing to communicate for specific purposes and offers a helpful description of how to carry out the instructional program. We think readers will find the discussion of peer correction (and preparation for peer correction) most useful.

**We are pleased to present two shorter subjects of general interest to readers. The first is HANNA TOUCHIE's article on language learning errors which zeros in on the teacher's perennial instructional dilemma: What is the significance of students' errors and how are they to be treated in the classroom? Finally, we have a comparison of *response styles* on questionnaires between Japanese and American college students by FRANCIS HORLER and JUNICHI YAMAZAKI. Their focus is on the extreme responses ("strongly agree," "strongly disagree") and on the ubiquitous "undecided." We think this area of research could have important applications in language policy planning, language needs assessment and other forms of language-related research which entail opinion surveying.

** Rounding out this issue's diverse contributions are two book reviews we think will appeal to readers who would like

to see how current issues in second and foreign language learning are being treated in the literature. REUBEN GERLING evaluates Kurshid Ahmad's discussion of computers, language learning and language teaching, and ROBERT INGRAM reviews Gail Robinson's recent book relating cross-cultural understanding to language teaching.

As always we would like to invite our readers' comments and hope to encourage critical response to what appears in the *JALT Journal.*

International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language

Subscription Rates

and details of the

Twenty-first International Conference

to be held in Westende-Middelkerke
Belgium

12 - 14 April 1987

From: IATEFL
3 Kingsdown Chambers, Kingsdown Park, Tankerton,
Whitstable, Kent, CT5 2DJ

THE ASSOCIATION
OF BRITISH COLUMBIA
TEACHERS OF ENGLISH
AS AN ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE
PRESENTS

PACIFIC PERSPECTIVES

TESL Canada '87

CONFERENCE
12 - 14 MARCH 1987
HYATT REGENCY HOTEL
VANCOUVER, B.C., CANADA

CONTACT: P.O. BOX 82344
BURNABY, B.C., CANADA
V5C 5P8
(604) 294-TEAL

THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH INTERROGATIVES BY A JAPANESE SPEAKER

Yoko Shimada

Abstract

Much syntax-based research in second language (L2) has given us useful information on the developmental processes of acquisition, although such research is difficult to apply towards improving teaching materials and teaching methods in English as a second language. This article examines the process by which the author's 11-year-old daughter acquired interrogatives and outlines some of the syntactically interesting features of her question forms. The data collected during 11 months are compared with those compiled by other researchers in this field and suggestions are offered for teaching English in Japanese junior and senior high schools.

This paper reports some of the major developmental features of acquiring interrogatives by a second language learner. It analyzes the English utterances of an eleven-year-old Japanese girl learning English as a second language in a natural setting and examines the process by which she acquired interrogatives, comparing the data with those compiled by other researchers in this field.

Yoko Shimada is a graduate of Nara Women's University. She received an Ed.M. in Bilingual Education from Boston University and taught English in high school in Kyoto. She is now a part-time instructor at Osaka University of Foreign Studies and Shitennoji International Buddhist University.

The following are the main reasons why, from among various structures in English, interrogatives were chosen for this study:

a) As questions and answers are the most basic pattern in communication, the learner's developmental stages appear clearly in her utterances of questions and answers.
b) As questions and answers are one of the most popular methods used in classrooms, a knowledge of the difficulties L2 learners encounter in this area is useful in teaching English as a second language.
c) The syntax of interrogatives in the subject's L1, Japanese, is sharply different from the syntax of interrogatives in her target language, English, so transfer from L1 will be clearly seen, if it exists.

In this paper the following problems are discussed on the basis of empirical data.

1) What developmental stages do L2 learners go through in acquiring interrogative constructions?
2) Is there any difference in the acquisition order of English question formation between L1 and L2?
3) Does learners' L1 interfere with L2 in the acquisition process of English interrogatives?
4) What roles do "chunks"[1] play in the acquisition of interrogatives?
5) Does comprehension of L2 learners always have superiority over production as regards questions and answers?

Data Collection

The subject in this study is the writer's daughter, June. In April, 1983, when she came to the U.S., she had had four years of elementary school education in Japan and acquired almost all the grammar of her native language. On the other hand, she knew nothing of English except for some borrowings and the alphabet. Her exposure to English came in April, 1983, when she was enrolled in grade four at a monolingual

public school in Belmont, Mass., at the age of 10. At school she was exposed mainly to English, but at home Japanese remained her language. Lessons at school, American friends and, later, TV were her major sources of L2 input.

Her English was observed over a period of 11 months, from May, 1983 (age 10;11) until March, 1984 (11;10). But during the first 7 months some aspects of her L2 acquisition process were recorded unsystematically, depending on my interest as a parent. Data collection focusing on interrogatives began at the beginning of January and continued until the end of March, when June went back to Japan. About every two weeks during the three-month period she was asked to engage in conversations with my husband and me in English for at least 30 minutes and her spontaneous speech was recorded. Her conversation with her American friends was also recorded on March 24. In addition, tests for production and comprehension of interrogatives were given four times at regular intervals in February and March. The tests consisted of translation from Japanese into English and questions and answers.[2] The same materials were used in every test.

Results

Developmental Stages

An analysis of interrogatives in June's utterances in English showed a striking similarity between her developmental stages and those of English monolingual children. Unlike her native language, structures of English interrogatives require transformational rules, specifically, wh-preposing, subject-auxiliary inversion and do-insertion. These are discussed in the literature on L1 acquisition, in particular, by Klima & Bellugi (1966) and Brown (1968). Klima & Bellugi posit the following three stages in the development of questions observed in their subjects. At Stage I the most common questions are a nucleus with a rising intonation or some version of a chunk like 'what's that?'. This stage is clearly pretransformational, since no con-

scious question transformation occurs. At Stage II constituent questioning develops, but there are still no auxiliary verbs, and so there is no subject-aux inversion in Yes-No questions. The wh-words merely serve as question introducers. By Stage III certain auxiliaries are inverted, though rarely, in wh-questions. The wh-words are moved to the beginning of the question by wh-transformation (see Klima & Bellugi 1966:200-207).

Interrogatives produced by June show similar stages with some differences at Stage III. The following are her developmental stages:

Stage I One- or two-word sentences were used with different intonation and gestures (May-June)

e.g.: Play?
Jump rope?
What this?
What's drink?
Daddy, where going?

Stage II No inversion was made in either Yes-No or wh-questions (September-November)

e.g.: Play jump rope?
You want this?
What's drink you like?
Why so funny?
Amanda, when you have to go home?

Stage III Both Yes-No and wh-questions were sometimes inverted and sometimes not. (December-March)

e.g.: Can I play jump rope?
You want this?
Do you want this one?
What kind of drink you like?
Which do you like best?
When Tomoko is coming?
When is she coming?

An examination of the data indicates the following features:

1. Through all stages June adopted rising intonation for Yes-No questions but never used it for wh-questions. From the

earliest period she seemed to use properly either intonation or wh-words as a question signal.

2. In Yes-No questions the developmental stages I observed in are the same as those described in Cancino et al. (1978:228):
   i) no inversion (i.e., sentence with rising intonation)
   ii) some inversion, gradually increasing, but with variability

   The stage where Yes-No but not wh-questions are inverted (Klima & Bellugi 1966) was not observed in the data on my subject. The data on February 5 shows that out of her 18 Yes-No questions, 6 were not inverted and out of 22 full-sentence wh-questions, all of which require inversion, 5 were not inverted (see Appendix A). Viewed from the ratio of uninverted questions to inverted ones, Yes-No questions are more frequent than wh-questions. This does not mean, however, that inversion in the former case is more difficult for my subject to acquire than inversion in the latter case. As a very little consideration will show, I reach the opposite conclusion for the following reason. Inversion is optional in Yes-No questions and most of 6 uninverted Yes-No questions in my data are as natural as their inverted counterparts. In contrast, inversion is obligatory in wh-questions except when the wh-word serves as the subject; the 5 ungrammatical uninverted wh-questions, therefore, reveal an incomplete stage of question acquisition.
3. Yes-No questions meaning request (Can I . . . ?, May I . . . ?, Will you . . . ?) were perfectly inverted from the very beginning. I assume that June heard such request forms in her daily life more frequently than any other question form and memorized such aux + S forms as a single unit. This seems to have enabled her to utter correct request forms.
4. Whether June used inverted forms or not did not always depend on her syntactic knowledge. She tended to use uninverted forms when they were easier for her to utter or when they sounded more natural to her. She sometimes rearranged word orders of her own English, saying "Sounds

strange!" (The first and third examples are inverted, of course; the second and third are not.)

e.g.: When is she coming?
Why Mr and Mrs Inada is coming today?
Can we eat dinner outside?
Or we eat at home?

5. There was no evidence that June depended on the rules of her native language in forming questions. She never uttered Yes-No questions without rising intonation or never placed a wh-word within a sentence, both cases of which often occur in Japanese questions. Nor did she produce subject-verb or verb-object inverted sentences like 'Play I jump rope?' or 'Jump rope play?'. Such examples are noted for Rune by Ravem (See Butterworth 1978:240-241) and for Ricardo (Butterworth 1978), but rarely found in case studies of Japanese children.
6. The order of appearance of inverted auxiliaries in June's case is

   can, may, will • do • be-copula • did, does.

   This acquisition order seems to reflect the frequency of occurrence in the input, and the early acquisition of 'do' could be partly explained by chunking (see 'Role of Memorized Chunks', below).
7. The order of acquisition of question patterns by June is

   Yes-No Q., what, where • alternative Q., when, why • tag Q., who • which • indirect Q., how.

   This order excludes what seem to be 'memorized chunks'. She used lots of chunks including 'how . . . ' (e.g., How do you do?, How are you?, How old are you?, How much is it?, How about you?) at an early stage, but as of March, 1984 she had not yet acquired questions including 'how' as a manner-adverb. She used 'how to' both in direct and indirect questions.

   e.g.: I don't know how to open this can.
   Daddy, how to make this?

   After she learned the expression 'how come', she preferred

to use it instead of 'why'.

8. June had also not yet acquired the use of indirect questions completely. She did not distinguish between simple and embedded wh-questions in production, nor did she distinguish between 'Do you know . . . ' + wh-question and wh-word + 'do you think . . . ?'.

   e.g.: What time is it now?
   Do you know what time is it now?
   Why you can't play with me now?
   Do you think why Tomoko is crying?

   In Yes-No indirect questions without a wh-word she did not invert subject-aux in the object clause.

   e.g.: Is it raining now?
   Do you think tomorrow is raining?
   Do you know this milk is bad or not?

L1 Interference

As previously mentioned, there was no clear evidence of transfer from Japanese in my data. Similar observations were reported by Gillis (1976) on the acquisition of interrogatives by two Japanese school-age children learning English in Canada. Hakuta (1976:347), however, came up with an argument against Gillis. He asserted that "interference errors are not the only manifestations of the process of language transfer, . . . " and that other possibilities such as structural avoidance and the overall rate of development should be taken into consideration. My data are too limited to either support or refute his argument. All I can say now is that interference errors were not found, and if there were any, they were negligible in my data. Most of the errors as well as the acquisition order are similar to those observed in English monolingual speakers.

Akiyama's study of Yes-No answering systems (1979) is of interest to the present discussion. Different languages require quite different systems for answering negative questions. In English the speaker answers 'yes' or 'no' depending

on the speaker's intention about the matter. In Japanese the speaker answers 'yes' or 'no' in agreement or disagreement with the literal meaning of the question. (e.g. In answering the question "*Asagohan tabenakatta-no?*" ("Didn't you eat breakfast?"), if the speaker ate it, he answers in Japanese, "*Iie tabemashita.*" ("No, I did."), and if the speaker did not eat it, he answers, "*Hai tabemasendeshita.*" ("Yes, I didn't.")) Akiyama reports that these two sytems interact in Japanese bilingual children. It is true that these different answering systems are difficult for Japanese students to master and cause a lot of trouble in English classrooms in Japan. I tested June on March 1 using the same type of materials as Akiyama used for his 18 subjects (see Akiyama 1979:491). A total of 32 Yes-No questions were asked in English and in Japanese. There were four types of questions (positive, negative, positive tag and negative tag questions) and four verbs (is, are do and can) giving 16 verb-question combinations. June gave correct answers 100% of the time (Appendix B). She seemed to have no difficulty in answering them without delay. This is perhaps due to the fact that she had already acquired the Japanese answering system and that she could code-switch between the two languages without translations from one language to the other.

Role of Memorized Chunks

Hakuta (1976:332-333) argues that using memorized chunks (that is, prefabricated patterns) plays a very important role in language acquisition. The data on his five-year-old Japanese subject shows that "(1) patterns using the copula including all allomorphs of 'be', (2) the pattern 'do you' as used in interrogatives and (3) the pattern 'how to' as in embedded how-questions were all prefabricated in the sense that they all showed a characteristic rigidity in usage and lack of variability, as well as misuse in linguistically inappropriate contexts." He says that prefabricated patterns "enable learners to express functions which they are yet unable to construct

from their linguistic system, . . . " (p. 333). He also supports Huang's suggestion cited in Hakuta (1976:332; also Huang 1971) that the strategy of sentence imitation did not disappear altogether when the L2 learners began producing utterances out of their own syntactic system.

My data support Hakuta's argument. I noted that June had produced a large number of memorized chunks. She was able to express a wide range of functions from the beginning by employing this strategy together with gestures. And from October she had begun to generate sentences by replacing some constituents of the expressions she had learned. For example, "Can I take one?" was expanded to various utterances for asking permission.

Can I play with Amanda now?
Can I eat this one, too?
Can I use this pencil?
Can I get dinosaur's egg?
What's that?
What's her name?
What's name is that store?
What's you drink?
What's the matter?
Do you want drink?
Do you have a lot of friends?
Do you like . . . ? Do you know . . . ? Do you think . . . ?
I don't know how to open it.
Tell me how to do it.
I know how to call, but I don't know what's her number.
How to spell 'New Hampshire.?

Chunking could explain the reason why she had acquired 'do you' at an early stage and why she misused 'how to' in simple how-questions. In the former case, she successfully extended the memorized chunks to the pattern of 'do you', while in the latter case, overgeneralization of 'how to' was observed. When she began to produce tag-questions, she attached 'isn't' or 'don't' to every sentence.

e.g. Funny, isn't it?
They are so cute, isn't it?
You are busy now, don't you?

Although these are also considered to be errors of overgeneralization, they facilitated her acquisition of tag-questions. In a week or so she acquired the rules of tag-questions.

Comprehension/Production

In L1 acquisition, general superiority of comprehension over production is observed. According to Dale (1972:90-91), at Stage II (in Klima and Bellugi's case study) "many wh-questions are answered appropriately, but they are not formulated correctly. Why questions, on the other hand, are asked but apparently not comprehended." Menyuk (1971:123), citing Fraser, Bellugi and Brown (1963) also notes: "Finally it has been found that children approximately 3 years of age comprehend grammatical contrasts which they do not produce."

Through all stages June showed much higher competence in comprehension than in production of any type of interrogative. She not only correctly understood the questions whose syntax she had not yet acquired completely but also responded correctly to them. The following are some questions June could not produce.

How did you come home with Meg?
– By car. Her mother pick up us.
Who did you eat lunch with?
– With Meg and her mother.
When do you think Tomoko is coming?
– I think she's coming around four.

As for why-questions, June's production was limited to memorized chunks at Stage II, but she could comprehend and respond properly to why-questions other than memorized chunks. The logic required to answer why-questions is more complicated than logic needed to answer other types of wh-questions. As Brown (1968:286) points out ". . . learning to

answer why-questions means learning what explanation is"; there must be some logic for explanation between why-questions and their answers. Such explanatory logic as June already had in her L1 seems to have enabled her to answer why-questions, since it works effectively in English as well.

June's speaking ability suddenly began to make rapid progress when a certain amount of L2 input accumulated and her listening comprehension advanced to a certain degree (in her case, about six months after she began to be exposed to L2).

Conclusion

Through my daughter's case study, I have outlined some syntactically interesting issues related to acquiring English interrogatives by L2 learners. Based on my findings, I now want to offer some tentative answers to the questions raised at the beginning of the paper.

1. There is a great similarity between English as the L1 and English as the L2 in the acquisition order of question formation.
2. June's case supports the contention that children acquiring English as a second language in a natural setting make few interference errors during production of interrogatives.
3. Many question forms produced by L2 learners in the earlier stages are considered to be memorized chunks. Chunking seems to play an important role in the process of second language acquisition.
4. There are some types of question which L2 learners cannot produce but whose meaning or concept they can understand correctly. As for interrogatives, comprehension is decidedly superior to production. This was clearly reflected in June's case.

In addition, to understand the developmental process, we need to know about the *appropriateness* of syntactic choice, an area

of research which will require a great deal more work.

Some implications can be drawn from this study for teaching English as a foreign language in Japan. I want to suggest the following for our junior high school English teaching.

1. Even if students produce sentences which do not have well-formed structures, their errors show their developmental stages just as the data for my daughter shows. Errors are not only inevitable but also offer evidence of students' growth through language use. Thus, students should be encouraged to communicate in English and not deprived of spontaneous speech by overcorrection of their syntactic errors. The more they speak, the better their English will be.
2. The teaching of English should be tied to real, concrete situations, which will reduce interference from the first language. Authentic English should be taught from the beginning.
3. Students should be asked to memorize useful expressions as chunks. Chunking helps learners, especially beginners, exercise communicative ability.
4. As many opportunities as possible for students to listen to natural English should be provided. There is some evidence suggesting that listening comprehension is essential for communication and helps to develop production.

I hope that further studies, with larger and more accurate data, will reinforce my suggestions.

Notes

[1] Chunks are also called 'prefabricated patterns' by Hakuta and 'formula utterances' by Wong-Fillmore. See the definition of 'prefabricated patterns' given by Hakuta (1976:331).

[2] The test were based on "The collection of sentence patterns and grammatical items for a junior high school English course" in *Koko Eigo Shido Shiryo* (The data on senior high school English courses of study), Tokyo: Kairyudo (no date).

Appendix A

Some of the following questions were uttered while June was talking to Gerbils, her pet. The rest were uttered when she was talking with my husband and me before and during lunch. Sentences (a) to (r) are Yes-No questions and (1) to (22) are wh-questions. An asterisk shows uninverted forms.

Hi, guys. (1) How are you? Dinner is ready. Today I'll give to you special dinner. Special rice. (a) Don't you like rice? It taste yummy. Here you go. O.K. Go ahead. Kuro, [a pet's name] go ahead. (2) How do you like it? Hey, Noro, [another pet's name] (3) what's you doing? You, bad boy! . . . (4) What do you want to do? (5) What do you want to do, next? (b) *You wanna go the outside? O.K. I'll take you out. Go! (c) Noro, do you want to eat some peanuts? Kuro, how about you? (d) Do you think Noro is very fat? I think Noro is too fat, so maybe . . . forget it . . . .

(e) *We go out somewhere, then we eat?
(f) *Or we eat at home?
(g) Daddy, can we eat dinner outside?
(6) *What kind of rice you have? Just white rice?
(h) Do you have Japanese tea - - - er - - - *mugi-cha*?
(i) Are you listening, mummy?
(j) Do you think I wear skirt or pants?
(k) *Pink sweater - - - pink sweater little white rabbit on it - - - is OK?
(7) What did you say?
(8) *What kind of dress you wear?
(9) *Then why you don't wear?
(10) *You have other kind. Why you don't?
(1) Can I eat this one, too?
(11) Where's *surume*?
(12) Where's carrot?
(13) Which can I have, this one or that?
(14) What time will you have dinner?
(15) *When the bus coming?
(m) *Mine's important?

(n) *You mean 'always'?
(o) Do I have to say it to everybody?
(p) Are you serious?
(q) Mummy, may I have a glass of Japanese tea?
(r) Uh, is that cup or glass?
(16) What did you say?
(17) What time is it?
(18) Where can I get it?
(19) What's name is that store?
(20) What's your problem mean?
(21) What do you mean for that?
(22) What are you doing, daddy?

Appendix B

Out of 32 Yes-No questions in English, 16 are listed here together with June's answers.

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
Is it hot today?	No. Today is cold.
Isn't it hot today?	No, it isn't.
It's hot today, isn't it?	No. Today is cold.
It isn't hot today, is it?	No, it isn't.
Are you a boy?	No, I'm not.
Aren't you a boy?	No, I'm not.
You are a boy, aren't you?	No. I'm a girl.
You aren't a boy, are you?	No. I'm a girl.
Do you have any Japanese books?	Yes, I have a lot.
Don't you have any Japanese books?	Yes, I have a lot.
You have some Japanese books, don't you?	Yes.
You don't have any Japanese books, do you?	Yes, I have a lot.
Can you speak English?	Yes, a little.
Can't you speak English?	Yes, I can.
You can speak English, can't you?	Yes.
You can't speak English, can you?	Yes, I can speak a little.

References

Akiyama, M. M. 1979. Yes-No answering systems in young children. *Cognitive Psychology, 11*, 485-504.

Brown, R. 1968. The development of wh-questions in child speech. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 7*, 279-290.

Butterworth, G. & Hatch, E. 1978. A Spanish-speaking adolescent s acquisition of English syntax. In E. Hatch (Ed.), *Second language acquisition*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Cancino, H., Rosansky, E. & Schumann, J. 1978. The acquisition of English negatives and interrogatives by native Spanish speakers. In E. Hatch (Ed.), *Second language acquisition*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Dale, P. S. 1972. *Language development*. New York: The Dryden Press.

Dulay, H. & Burt, M. 1973. Should we teach children syntax? *Language Learning, 23*, 235-252.

Fraser, C., Bellugi, U., & Brown, R. 1963. Control of grammar in imitation comprehension and production. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 2*, 121-135.

Gillis, M. 1976. The emergence of sentence modalities in the English of Japanese-speaking children. *Language Learning, 26*, 77-94.

Hakuta, K. 1976. A case study of a Japanese child learning English as a second language. *Language Learning, 26*. 321-351.

Hatch, E. M. 1983. *Psycholinguistics: A second language perspective*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Huang, J. 1971. *A Chinese child's acquisition of English syntax*. Unpublished M.A. thesis, U.C.L.A.

Klima, E. & Bellugi, U. 1966. Syntactic regularities in the speech of children. In J. Lyons & R. J. Wales (Eds.), *Psycholinguistics papers*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

McLaughlin, B. 1978. *Second-language acquisition in childhood*. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Menyuk, P. 1971. *The acquisition and development of language*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

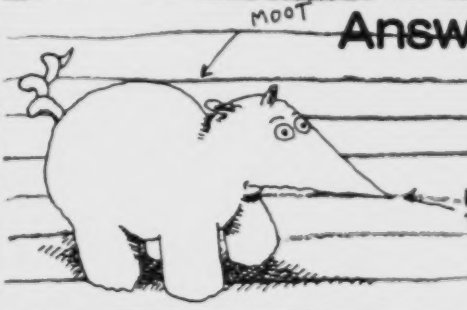
Rutherford, W. E. 1982. Markedness in second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 32*, 85-108.

Listening between the Lines

Lin Lougheed

Listening practice for advanced students through

* Mini-dialogues
* Pair Practice
* Yes/No/Maybe Answers



Text ¥1,600
Tape ¥3,500
Text+Script ¥2,000

TOKYO ENGLISH LANGUAGE BOOK FAIR Nov. 29(Sat) 30(Sun)

Addison-Wesley Publishers Japan

EVALUATING TEACHERS' GUIDES: DO TEACHERS' GUIDES GUIDE TEACHERS?

Hywel Coleman

Abstract

This paper is concerned with TGs and looks at them from the point of view of the NNS teacher. It considers the role of the TG and looks briefly at previous discussions and evaluations of TGs by materials writers themselves and by reviewers. An inventory of factors which need to be taken into consideration when evaluating TGs is proposed. Finally, some attention is given to the possibility of evaluating TGs in training courses for NNS teachers.

Background

Extensive observation of a group of young, inexperienced and relatively untravelled non-native speaker (NNS) teachers of English in an Indonesian university – people lacking confidence in their own command of English – has revealed a striking uniformity of classroom styles, whoever is teaching, whoever is being taught, whatever materials are being used (Coleman, n.d.).

To some extent this uniformity can be seen as the manifestation of a very strong tradition of what 'teaching' is. That

Hywel Coleman is a doctoral student at the University of Lancaster and has published in *ELT Documents* (British Council).

The editors gratefuly acknowledge permission to reprint this article which originally appeared in J. Charles Alderson (Ed.), *Evaluation: Lancaster Practical Papers in English Language Education (Vol. 6)*, Oxford, Pergamon Institute of English, 1985.

17

is, it is a product of the expectations of both students and teachers of what 'ought' to happen in the classroom. To some extent, also, this uniformity can be attributed to the teachers' exposure to a limited variety of classroom events in their own educational experience, and to the fact that teacher training in Indonesia does not normally concern itself with the mundane details of what happens in the classroom. In any case, many university teachers of English have undergone no teacher training.

Lack of training – or experience of only a very abstract and theoretical training – contributes to the phenomenon of a uniform teaching style in other ways. Firstly, teachers have no training in the evaluation of teaching materials and are apprehensive of making evaluations. Further, they have no training either in the *interpretation* of the teachers' guides (TGs) which accompany teaching materials or in the *evaluation* of TGs. Consequently teachers are reluctant to undertake their own interpretations and evaluations.

Are Teachers' Guides Necessary?

There is little in the literature which describes the attitudes of NNS teachers towards textbooks and even less concerning their evaluations of TGs. However, the author of a review of Parkinson (1978), who admits to being 'an overseas teacher of English,' makes it clear that the NNS teacher does require guidance in the use of textbooks. She says (Moya 1978:30-32):

> It will be very hard for any overseas . . . teacher of English to work with this book because it is rather short of explanation as to how it should be taught . . . . As far as the format of the book is concerned, I would have liked to see in it . . . more explanations on how to use the book (i.e., some sort of guide for both the teacher and the student).

The difficulties which the NNS teacher of English has to struggle with are frequently underestimated by the writers of ELT materials and by writers on ELT. Many NNS English

teachers feel themselves to be only a hair's breadth away from where their learners stand, in terms of competence and experience in the target language. In Indonesia, for example, it is probably safe to say that the majority of high-school English teachers have never spoken to a native speaker of English, and most university English lecturers have had only very occasional contact with native speakers. Potter (1983) recognizes that NNS teachers of English frequently lack confidence in their own competence in the language which they are teaching. This confirms a point made by Willis, who argues that the problems faced by NNS teachers are 'more daunting than the problems faced by native speaker teachers' and that therefore 'non-native speaker teachers of English are sometimes forced to lean heavily on the textbook and depend too much on it' (1981:41f).

Allwright (1981) argues that teaching materials have only limited usefulness in the management of learning and yet, conventionally, they have been given a disproportionately important role. Allwright believes, also, that teachers do 'too much' work in the classroom and that they must be trained not to do so much work. This is all very well, but the NNS teacher who has little confidence in his own grasp of the language, and who has had little exposure to alternative methods of managing learning, is not able to stop doing 'too much' from the position of strength which a native speaker teacher has. If NNS teachers are to stop doing too much (and this is certainly necessary) they will have to do it from a position of relative weakness. This implies a continued reliance on teaching materials and on the TGs which accompany the materials. But it need not mean that teaching materials must continue to play the same role which they have traditionally had. Teaching materials – in the widest sense – can supplement the NNS teacher's competence in the target language, whilst TGs can bolster the teacher's confidence. As the teacher's competence increases, so he can gradually modify or dispense with teaching materials. At the same time, as the teacher's

confidence increases, so he can become increasingly selective in his reliance on the TG.

Materials Writers on Teachers' Guides

The literature is remarkably devoid of discussion by materials writers themselves of the role of TGs. Swales (1978), for example, says that he believes the teacher-variable is of great importance in ESP work, yet there is no evidence elsewhere in his description of the writing of *Writing Scientific English* (Swales 1971) that any attention at all was given to the potential problems of teachers in using the materials. Allen and Widdowson (1978) describe the creation of *English in Physical Science* (Allen and Widdowson, 1974a) but they give no indication that they thought very much about the prospective teachers when they were writing their textbook, nor do they describe how the TG for this textbook (Allen and Widdowson 1974b) was written. Bates (1978), describing the writing of *Nucleus: General Science* (Bates and Dudly-Evans, 1976a), makes occasional references to teachers' perceptions of their classroom roles, to student- teacher rapport, and to traditional teacher attitudes to teaching materials. However, he does not attempt to show how these matters were taken into consideration in the writing of the accompanying TG (Bates and Dudley-Evans, 1976b).

An interesting exception to this general failure of materials writers to describe how TGs are prepared is to be found in the collection of papers describing the University of Malaya project (Chitravelu 1980c). Chitravelu (1980a:xiv), for example, defines the role of a TG as:

> to assist the teacher to obtain the best possible results from the lessons. It should contain a statement of the aims of each lesson and activity, suggestions on procedure, advice on feedback and information on the location of the materials for each lesson. It should also provide answers and, where necessary, give explanations for answers.

A paper by Cooper in the same collection (Cooper 1980:9) describes deficiencies discovered in an early draft of the TG and the characteristics of a revised version which provided:

> proper attention to the specification of general and specific aims (linguistic, behavioural, methodological, attitudinal), cross referencing to related lessons, adequate advice on presentation and effective feedback.

In a further paper (Chitravelu, 1980b), the additional help for the teacher which was incorporated into the final version of the materials is described. It may be no coincidence that these materials were originally designed for a specific group of NNS teachers and that NNS teachers were involved in the writing of the materials. Apart from this particular case, however, there is little evidence that materials writers, when given an opportunity to describe their materials, pay much attention to TGs.

Textbook Reviewers on Teachers' Guides

If materials writers seem generally not to attach much importance to TGs, the same can be said of the reviewers of ELT materials. Elliman's model for coursebook evaluation (Elliman 1981), for example, makes no mention of TGs and indeed Elliman appears to conclude that teachers should be selected with regard to their appropriacy for the materials to be used, rather than that materials should be explicated with regard to the competence of teachers! Williams (1981) suggests that ESP textbook evaluation be included in teacher training courses, and proposes an interesting method for doing this, but he has given no attention whatsoever to TGs.

Drobnic (1978) collects 38 textbook reviews by 12 reviewers. In general, if a TG is available, reviewers refer to this fact but provide no analysis. A typical example, in a three-page review of Glendinning (1974), is this one-line comment (Malmsten 1978:77):

> There is a teacher's edition with a key to exercises . . .

On the other hand, when no TG is available, reviewers tend to regret its absence in rather greater detail. The review by Alyta (1978:170) of Hawkey (1970) is a typical case in point:

> The book has no preface, introduction or notes to the teacher so the intentions of the author will remain unknown.

Such brief observations apart, the overwhelming emphasis of these reviews is on the materials for students.

Something of an exception is provided by Ewer and Boys (1981), who evaluate 10 leading EST textbooks. In performing this evaluation the writers ask themselves to what extent the explanations given for particular teaching points are adequate, and what supplementary help is given to teachers. Their comments fall into three categories: explanations of teaching points, keys to exercises, and suggestions for extra exercises.

It is noteworthy that what attention is given to TGs (limited though this is) comes largely from people working in the field of ESP. One suspects that this is because it is considered legitimate for even a native speaker teacher of ESP to feel a certain degree of uncertainty or nervousness about the language of the specialist field into which he is venturing ('Will my students ask me for definitions distinguishing between *energy* and *power*?). It is therefore acceptable for the ESP teacher to demand backup support and this explains the frequency of reassuring comments in the TGs accompanying ESP texts, such as the following by Hall and Bowyer (1980:1):

> The teacher does not in fact need to know more than is in the book in order to use the book.

On the other hand, it is not often recognized that the NNS teacher of English may feel a very similar unease about English in general ('Will my students ask me what one says if one wants to go to the toilet when visiting somebody else's house?' or 'Will my students ask me why the simple present is not used in "I'm forever blowing bubbles" '?). It is not, therefore, conventionally acceptable for the NNS teacher of English to

demand the same sort of support on linguistic and sociolinguistic matters from general ELT textbooks. Yet if this sort of support is not provided, textbooks may be underexploited or ignored.

Evaluating Teachers' Guides

In this section an instrument for the evaluation of TGs is proposed. The instrument comprises 10 factors which need to be considered when evaluating the usefulness of a TG. These factors fall into five categories: (a) primary factors (assumptions about the nature of language and language use, and about language learning and teaching); (b) materials content; (c) implementation; (d) evaluation; and (e) presentation. The purpose of this instrument is to indicate the ways in which a TG may be inadequate for the purposes of NNS teachers, and the illustrations are therefore largely negative examples.

Primary Factors

Assumptions about shared attitudes towards the nature of language and language use. Does the TG assume – without clarification – that the teacher shares the writer's attitudes to the nature of language? Cases in which such an assumption is made are legion. One example is Stone (1969) which claims, from its title, to teach reading skills. From a close perusal of the book it can be deduced that the author believes that the key to successful reading lies in a minute understanding of every word in a text and that exactly the same procedure should be used in reading a recipe and a short story. But the introduction for the teacher (*op. cit.*: iv-vii) and the accompanying TG (Stone *et al.* 1979) make no attempt to define the nature of written language or the reading process.

An example in which no assumptions about shared attitudes towards the nature of language and its use are made is Candlin *et al.* (1977), which provides a detailed discussion of the

dichotomy between language function and language form. The authors' attitudes are founded on their research into doctor–patient communication, which is well documented and to which they make repeated reference.

Assumptions about shared attitudes towards the nature of language learning and teaching. Does the TG assume, without an explicit statement, that the teacher shares the writer's interpretation of the language learning process? In other words, does the TG assume both a particular methodology and also that the teacher is already familiar with that methodology? There are innumerable instances in which such an assumption is found. A less obvious but increasingly common phenomenon is for the textbook writer to claim that a particular approach is being adhered to (usually 'communicative') but without clarifying exactly what this means in practice. From the point of view of the poorly trained NNS teacher, the writer's use of a label such as 'communicative' is not helpful, unless it can be supported by a detailed explanation of what this really means when the teacher, the learners and the materials come together in the classroom.

Equally unhelpful is a deliberate refusal to provide any assistance at all, presumably on the grounds that advice on how to use materials would restrict the teacher's freedom. A particularly glaring example is Long *et al.* (1980:xiii):

> We offer no recommendations on how to use these materials. It would be presumptuous of us to do so given the appalling ignorance about the necessity, sufficiency or efficiency of classroom teaching and learning behaviours in general, and those related to reading skills in particular.

This is admirably undogmatic but it is of absolutely no value to the teacher who lacks the experience and skill required to make confident decisions about how to use materials.

As if to compensate for their extreme rejection of dogmatism, the writers then go on to claim academic respectability for their book by listing the influences on their work (*op. cit.*: xiv-xv):

> A guide to materials is not the place to indulge in long explanations of the rationale behind them. That is for conferences and journal articles. Any teacher who is familiar with the applied linguistic literature will, however, have recognized several of our allegiances, and other debts will become obvious as you read and use the materials themselves. We would like, therefore, to acknowledge the thinking of the following people: Donald Adamson, Charles Alderson, Patrick Allen, Dick Allwright, Michael Breen, Christopher Candlin, Fernando Castanos, Gary Cziko, Evelyn Hatch, Steven Krashen, Ron Mackay, Alan Mountford, Ken Moody, John Munby, Larry Selinker, Frank Smith, John Swales, Dick Yorkey, and Henry Widdowson. None of them saw *REAS* prior to its publication.

This is undeniably a magnificent intellectual ancestry for any materials to have (although it is a little difficult to see how the thinking of some of these people can be made compatible and be integrated into one textbook!). But unfortunately there are still vast numbers of English teachers in the world who are not familiar with the applied linguistics literature and who have never heard of Christopher Candlin or Larry Selinker. This recitation of some significant names in the world of ELT is simply not useful for the teacher who wants to know how he can best use the materials which the book contains. In effect, the authors are abdicating their responsibility towards the potential users of their product.

Factors Relating to the Content of the Materials

Assumptions about shared culture in lesson content. Is there assistance in the TG for the teacher who may be unfamiliar with the cultural content of the materials? I once observed an English lesson at a technical college in Central Java which was being taught by a teacher who herself had never been outside Java. Lesson 3 of *Kernel Lessons Intermediate* (O'Neill *et. al.*, 1971a) was being used and the class was discussing the first picture in the lesson. This shows a box and a teapot on a table. The box has the word CORNFLAKES written on it. One of the students asked the teacher what a 'CORNFLAKES' was. The teacher was unable to answer immediately, she was too

embarrassed to ask me, and there was nothing to help her in the TG (O'Neill *et al.*, 1971b). At last, after some hesitation, the teacher explained that cornflakes is an alcoholic drink and that many Westerners drink cornflakes for breakfast. Of course, it may be that the material which was being used in this lesson was culturally inappropriate for the learners, but then it may be that the purpose of the lesson was to prepare the learners for life in the West. What is clear is that the NNS teacher was unable to answer the student's question by relying on her own experience and competence, and she was also unable to refer to the TG to solve her problems.

Assumptions about the teacher's ability to deal with ambiguity. Does the TG expect the teacher to tolerate ambiguity or uncertainty and to manage these in the classroom? An example is found in Swales and Fanning (1980a:64) in which learners are asked to classify verbs which describe change into one of seven categories of change. In the TG which accompanies the textbook, the authors comment (Swales and Fanning 1980b:18):

> Some verbs may fit into more than one category, but it does not matter.

It is quite true that some verbs may fit into more than one category. However, this is not enough, since the NNS teacher may need to know exactly which verbs can be categorized in more than one way, and exactly what those categries are. A very common characteristic of young NNS teachers who lack confidence in their own English is an extreme unwillingness to accept uncertainty like this and to demand absolute answers (even when they may not be available).

Factors Relating to Implementation

Assumptions about shared culture in teaching methodology. Does the TG recommend behaviour which is inappropriate in the culture of the learners and their teacher? Although this is not a very common failing of TGs, some particularly interest-

ing illustrations can be found. Lynch (1975:21) gives some advice to teachers on how to conduct the debriefing after a role playing session. He suggests:

> If students took their roles seriously some interesting confrontations may have arisen during the debate. It might be useful to discuss how these confrontations developed and were resolved.

Teachers therefore are required to encourage learners to publicly introspect about their confrontations with their peers. This is totally inappropriate in Indonesia, for example, where the avoidance of confrontation and the achievement of consensus are the fundamental tenets of social intercourse.

Assumptions about the teacher's ability and willingness to deal with incompleteness. Does the TG assume that the teacher has the time, the resources, the linguistic competence and the self-confidence to elaborate on what the author provides? In the section above on shared attitudes towards the nature of language learning and teaching, we discussed TGs which either take for granted a particular methodology or which renounce all responsibility for determining methodology. Here we look at TGs which do provide guidance on implementation but which still surrender some responsibility to the teacher. Two examples are given to illustrate this. The first comes from Swales and Fanning (1980b:9):

> You will have noticed that the passage is full of spatial prepositions and thus provides an opportunity for revising and developing these.

This is a relatively modest instance which requires the teacher to identify 'spatial prepositions' and then to decide how to 'revise' and 'develop' them. We should not be surprised if the recommendation is ignored, however, for many teachers will lack the time, the linguistic competence or the confidence to 'develop' exercises for revision.

It is to be hoped, incidentally, that the teacher is able to identify these 'spatial prepositions,' for the term is not explained anywhere else by Swales and Fanning, nor is it used in any of the standard descriptions of English to which the

teacher is likely to have access, such as Hornby (1975), Thomson and Martinet (1980) or Quirk *et al.* (1972).

In the second example, much greater demands are made of the teacher. Candlin *et al.* (1977:34) discuss the ways in which particular discoursal functions may be manifested:

> The purpose of the *Code Characterisation* section is to lay out for the Instructor *typical* but not *unique* realisations (*grammatical, lexical* and *phonological*) of the FUNCTIONS in question. We hope that the instructor will be able to extend this set of realisations from his own observations of doctor–patient communication, and relate them to some communicatively oriented grammar . . . . The set of formal realisations given is *not* intended to be complete, but merely typical and illustrative.

The teacher is asked to make his own recordings of doctor–patient communication, identify realizations of discoursal functions, and then classify these using the categories employed in a communicative grammar! Many well-trained native speaker teachers working in well-endowed institutions with no shortage of facilities would quail before such a prospect. For the NNS teacher working with limited facilities and with a heavy teaching load, this advice is meaningless.

Factors Relating to Evaluation

Assumptions about the teacher's ability and willingness to deal with open-endedness. Does the TG provide assistance for teachers wishing to evaluate learners' responses to activities and exercises for which there cannot be predictable answers? Alexander (1967:127), for example, contains the following instruction for students:

> Write a composition in about 300 words on one of the following:
> (a) A visit to a factory.
> (b) Machines that do housework.

It is of course impossible to provide a 'key' to exercises of this type. But the introductory sections for the teacher (*op. cit.*: vii-xv) give no guidance to the teacher as to how students' responses to this task are to be evaluated. Consequently the

'NNS teacher who is uncertain of his own ability to evaluate students' writing – and there are many such teachers – will either not ask his students to perform the task at all or will not attempt any evaluation of the work which the students do even if they do complete it.

Assumptions about the teacher's ability and willingness to work out answers. Does the TG provide keys to those exercises which do have predictable answers? In cases where it is possible to identify correct responses to a task, the TG may still not provide the information which the overworked or undertrained NNS teacher requires. Look, for example, at the following from Harvey and Wheeler (1976a: Drillcard 2.9):

DRILL 1 we leave now . . . get there in time
PART A *If* we leave now, *we'll* get there in time
PART B If we want to get there in time, we must leave now
or we'll have to leave now
I push the caravan over here . . . get the car in beside (. . .)
PART C In order to get there in time we've got to leave now
DRILL 2 Place 'it follows that' or 'then' in the prompts for Drill 1.
DRILL 3 leave now . . . get there in time
PART A Leaving now means we'll get there in time
or Getting there in time means leaving now
Go through the prompts in Drill 1 making statements of the above type.
PART B We got there in time because we left immediately

I leave it to the reader to work out exactly what it is that learners are supposed to do and what they are required to produce, for the TG accompanying the materials (Harvey and Wheeler 1976b) gives no help here. These drills are completely mechanical, but the teacher must invest an inordinate amount of time working through them.

Factors Relating to Presentation

Organization of guidance. Does the TG provide detailed guidance which still requires careful interpretation or cross-referencing? The following passage, taken from Fowler (1975:

29), describes a procedure for administering a listening comprehension exercise:

> Read the passage three times at normal speed. Each reading should take not more than three minutes. During the second reading, allow a pause of 10 seconds at the points marked 1, and allow a pause of five seconds at the same points during the third reading. Students should be given two minutes to read the questions after the first reading; two minutes to note down answers they are already sure of after the second reading; and three minutes to complete their answers at the end. The definitions of words printed at the foot of passages should be given to students before the passage is read.

This procedure actually consists of nine simple steps, but the order in which these steps are described is not the same as the order in which they are to be performed. It is particularly curious that the first step in the procedure is the one which is described last of all.

The TG for *Kernel Lessons Intermediate* (O'Neill *et al.* 1971b) is rich in well-intentioned guidance which is presented in such a complicated way that it becomes difficult to exploit. Unfortunately space does not permit a detailed discussion here. However, the interested reader with plenty of time to spare may like to look at Unit 11 e/f (*op. cit.*: 67 and facing page) as an example and try to make a list of everything which has to be done if all the material in the unit is to be used and if all the suggestions for use are to be followed, keeping a note at the same time of how frequently it is necessary to search back through earlier pages of the book in order to understand the instructions fully.

Linguistic complexity and clarity. Does the TG employ language of a complexity which is appropriate only for native speakers or extremely fluent NNS teachers? The following example comes from Candlin *et al.* (1977:27):

> In the light of the development of this opposition we have at last become concerned with the only proper goal of a language learning syllabus, that of leading a learner to be able to communicate and understand in a foreign language not only the meaning within linguistic form, but also meaning as the communication of functional information negotiated between speakers and hearers in the actual world of context and presupposition.

A closely related phenomenon is the failure to ensure that the advice which is given in the TG is expressed clearly and unambiguously. The example which follows – from Panpat *et al.* (1978:20) – is given with its original punctuation:

> This dialogue leaves the student with certain options, but refer back to 3.2 if any learner is in doubt. Note however that *I hope you liked the dinner* in line 3 must mean that in line 2 the first speaker thanks for the evening. (Note: the evening not the night) with the possibilities:
>
> *Thank you for a* *pleasant* / *nice* / *lovely* *evening.*

Conclusions

In this discussion of the factors which need to be taken into consideration in an evaluation of TGs, no assumptions have been made about what constitutes a most desirable methodology, about what constitutes a most acceptable theory of language acquisition, or about what form a most acceptable theory of the nature of language would take. I have attempted to remain neutral on these issues and to be eclectic in my selection of illustrative texts. That is to say, I have tried to ensure that the illustrations are taken from materials representing a range of approaches to ELT.

It is not my intention to suggest that materials have no potential pedagogic value simply because there are inadequacies in their TGs as perceived from the point of view of the NNS teacher. (In fact there may even be a conflict in some cases between a desirable learning procedure and the uncertain NNS teacher's need for security and certainty.) What I am arguing is that many TGs appear to be little more than incidental afterthoughts and that far less care seems to have gone into their creation than into the materials for learners. Furthermore, the inadequacies of TGs undoubtedly do influence the responses of NNS teachers to materials. If teachers perceive materials as being impenetrable or extremely compli-

cated or requiring an excessive investment of time and energy before teaching can begin, then they may respond to the materials in one of three ways.

(a) Teachers may exploit only those fractions of the materials which are amenable to use by the restricted repertoires which they possess. In other words, if a teacher is familiar only with one teaching style, in which the teacher reads aloud to a passive class, that teacher will obviously select only those passages which he considers suitable for recitation. I have seen *Kernel Lessons Intermediate* (O'Neill *et al.* 1971a) used in exactly this way by many Indonesian teachers.

(b) Teachers may exploit only those fractions of the materials which are accessible to the restricted linguistic competence which they possess. Thus, a teacher may skip certain activities, not because he considers them inappropriate but because he is uncertain of his own ability to evaluate what the students may produce. I often see teachers rushing through two or even three lessons of *Developing Skills* (Alexander 1967) in one 90-minute class, for example. The teachers admit that this is because they dare not allow the students to work on any of the more open-ended exercises such as composition or letter writing: they do not know how to evaluate the students' work.

(c) Teachers may reject the materials altogether.

This inventory of factors for evaluating TGs is really a plea. Perhaps we can look forward to a time when all English teaching will be done by teachers who are not obliged to take on excessive teaching loads in order to keep their families alive, who work in well-equipped institutions, who have near-native competence in English, who are confident and well trained, and who are familiar with the work of Candlin and Selinker. But until that day comes it is important for the writers and publishers of ELT materials to remember the difficulties which are faced by many of their potential customers and to ensure

that TGs are thorough and clear. Recommendations for use need not be equated with restrictions on teachers' freedom. The teacher who does not need advice is not obliged to follow it. But if ELT materials are to be exploited more efficiently by their users, teachers' guides must be able to guide teachers.

Postscript

What value is there in performing an evaluation of TGs? In recent in-service workshops I have been encouraging NNS teachers to undertake their own evaluations of TGs, using the inventory of factors proposed here. Not surprisingly, the teachers have frequently come to the conclusion that TGs do *not* satisfy their needs, that the guides are not guiding them. If nothing else, this has indicated to the teachers that, even by an apparently 'objective' assessment, the problems which they experience are real and legitimate. No easy solutions to these problems have been offered, for they do not exist. But this validation of their problems has helped relieve teachers of some of their feeling of inadequacy of the TGs. At the same time, this validation of problems has contributed to an atmosphere of solidarity between the teacher trainer and the teachers, and has left the latter more receptive to what the former has to offer. A similar phenomenon was experienced by Early and Bolitho (1981:82) when working with a group of German teachers of English:

> in the process of eliciting problems from the teachers, we [found] ourselves sympathetically bearing the brunt of them. [Conseqently] we were better placed to get a hearing for our ideas now that we had shown ourselves to be aware of, and sensitive to [the teachers' problems].

The next steps are to indicate two things to teachers. Firstly, ways in which TGs can be interpreted. Even though interpreting guides can demand considerable effort, it may be rewarding if it enriches the teacher's repertoire. Secondly, ways of exploiting published ELT materials regardless of – or

in spite of – the TGs which accompany the materials. The inadequacy of instructions is not sufficient reason to reject the materials themselves. Even if the authors' original intentions are not clear or are inappropriate, it may still be possible to exploit the materials in other ways. But these matters are beyond the scope of the present paper.

Acknowledgement

I am grateful to Ken Moody for letting me use a couple of sessions in a workshop held at Hasanuddin University, Indonesia, in 1982, for discussion of some of these ideas. I am grateful, too, to Jim Hardman for agreeing to devote one of his sessions in a workshop held at the British Council, Jakarta, in 1982, to discussion of the same ideas. Jim Hardman also helped me to obtain copies of some of the materials discussed here. Finally, I am grateful to Charles Alderson for the comments he made on an earlier draft of this paper.

References

Alexander, L. G. 1967. *Developing Skills: An Integrated Course for Intermediate Students*. (New Concept English Series.) London: Longman.

Allen, J. P. B. and Widdowson, H. G. 1974a. *English in Physical Science*: (English in Focus Series.) London: Oxford University Press.

Allen, J. P. B. and Widdowson, H. G. 1974b. *English in Physical Science: Teacher's Edition*. (English in Focus Series.) London: Oxford University Press.

Allen, J. P. B. and Widdowson, 1978. Teaching the communicative use of English. In Mackay and Mountford (1978). pp. 56-77.

Allwright, R. L. 1981. What do we want teaching materials for? *ELT Journal, 36*(1): 5-18.

Alyta, K. 1978. Review of 'English Practice for Engineers.' In Drobnic (Ed.). pp. 170-171.

Bates, M. 1978. Writing 'Nucleus.' In Mackay and Mountford (1978). pp. 78-96.

Bates, M. and Dudley-Evans, T. 1976a. *General Science*. (Nucleus English for Science and Technology Series.) London: Longman.

Candlin, C. N., Bruton, C. M., Leather, J. H. and Woods, E. G. 1977. *Doctor-Patient Communication Skills: Teachers' Book*. Chelmsford: Medical Recording Service Foundation.

Chitravelu, N. 1980a. The University of Malaya English for Special Purposes Project. In Chitravelu (1980c). pp. v-xvi.

Chitravelu, N. 1980b. The revised version of the UMESPP material: a resume. In Chitravelu (1980c). pp. 116-121.

Chitravelu, N. (Ed.). 1980c. *The University of Malaya English for Special Purposes Project (UMESPP).* (ELT Documents 107.) London: The British Council.

Coleman, H. (n.d.) From spectacle to festival: the teaching of English in an Indonesian university. Unpublished paper.

Cooper, M. 1980. Reading for meaning. In Chitravelu (1980c). pp. 1-16.

Drobnic, K. (Ed.). 1978. *38 ESP Textbook Reviews.* Corvallis. Oregon: Oregon State University.

Early, P. and Bolitho, R. 1981. Reasons to be cheerful: or helping teachers to get problems into perspective. In Marsh (1981). pp. 71-85.

Elliman, J. 1981. A model for coursebook evaluation. *English for Specific Purposes Newsletter, 46*, 1-4.

Ewer, J. R. and Boys, O. 1981. The EST textbook situation: an enquiry. *The ESP Journal, 1*(2), 87-105.

Fowler, W. S. 1975. *First Certificate English: Book 4: Listening Comprehension: Teacher's Book.* Sunbury-on-Thames: Nelson.

Glendinning, E. H. 1974. *English in Mechanical Engineering.* (English in Focus Series.) London: Oxford University Press.

Hall, D. and Bowyer, T. 1980. *Mathematics: Teacher's Notes.* (Nucleus English for Science and Technology Series.) Harlow: Longman.

Harvey, G. M. and Wheeler, M. S. 1976a. *North Sea Challenge.* (Language Training Pack 1.) London: BP Educational Service.

Harvey, G. M. and Wheeler, M. S. 1976b. *North Sea Challenge: Teacher's Guide.* (Language Training Pack 1.) London: BP Educational Service.

Hawkey, M. 1970. *English Practice for Engineers.* London: Longman.

Hornby, A. S. 1975. *Guide to Patterns and Usages in English.* 2nd edn. London: Oxford University Press.

Long, M. H., Allen, W., Cyr, A., Lemelin, C., Ricard, E., Spada, N. and Vogel. P. 1980. *Reading English for Academic Study.* (English for Academic Study Series.) Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Lynch, M. 1975. *North Sea Challenge: Teacher's Guide.* (Decisions Series.) London: BP Educational Service.

Mackay, R. and Mountford, A. 1978. *English for Specific Purposes: A Case Study Approach.* (Applied Linguistics and Language Study Series.) London: Longman.

Malmsten, N. 1978. Review of *English in Mechanical Engineering.* In Drobnic (1978), pp. 75-77.

Marsh, G. (Ed.) 1981. *Focus on the Teacher.* (ELT Documents 110.) London: The British Council.

Moya, V. 1978. Review of *English for Doctors and Nurses.* In Drobnic (1978), pp. 28-32.

O'Neill, R., Kingsbury, R. and Yeadon, T. 1971a. *Kernel Lessons Intermediate: Teacher's Book.* London: Longman.

Panpat, S., Long, M. N. and Richards, J. C. 1978. *Breakthrough 1: Teacher's Book.* Kuala Lumpur: Oxford University Press.

Parkinson, J. 1978. *English for Doctors and Nurses.* London: Evans Brothers.

Potter, M. 1983. Socio-cultural reality in foreign language teaching programmes: whose reality? Paper presented at the 17th Annual TESOL Convention. Toronto, 17 March 1983.

Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G. and Svartvik, J. 1972. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. London: Longman.

Stone, L. 1969. *Reading English Objectively: Stage 1*. London: Macmillan.

Stone, L., Malone, R. L., Lancaster, M. and Ttoel. C. 1979. *Reading English Objectively 1-3: Key*. London: Macmillan.

Swales, J. 1971. *Writing Scientific English*. Sunbury-on-Thames: Nelson.

Swales, J. 1978. *Writing Scientific English*. In Mackay and Mountford (1978), pp. 43-55.

Swales, J. and Fanning, P. 1980a. *English in the Medical Laboratory*. Sunbury-on-Thames: Nelson.

Swales, J. and Fanning, P. 1980b. *English in the Medical Laboratory: Key*. Sunbury-on-Thames: Nelson.

Thomson, A. J. and Martinet, A. V. 1980. *A Practical English Grammar*. 3rd edn. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Williams, R. 1981. A procedure for ESP textbook analysis and evaluation on teacher education courses. *The ESP Journal. 1*(2): 155-162.

Willis, J. 1981. The training of non-native speaker teachers of English: a new approach. In Marsh (1981), pp. 41-53.

TEACHING AND LEARNING STYLES OF ESL STUDENT TEACHERS

Christine Uber Grosse

Abstract

Researchers have generally assumed that an individual's teaching and learning styles are closely related. This paper investigates the relationship between certain aspects of the teaching and learning styles of sixty ESL student teachers. The Canfield Learning Styles Inventory and Instructional Style Inventory were the assessment instruments used in the study. The findings imply that the group of student teachers use different behaviors to react to similar teaching and learning situations. Although some similarities did exist, the differences in over half of the assessed preferences for conditions and modes of instruction were significant.

Researchers generally assume that the teaching and learning styles of individuals are closely related, and that an instructor usually teaches the way she or he learns.[1] Recent research has focused on the assessment of cognitive styles and the match of teaching and learning styles. The result of studies by Witkin (1976), Dunn and Dunn (1979), and Laosa (1977) imply that a teacher can and should vary teaching style in order to accommodate the diverse learning styles of the students.

Dr. Christine Uber Grosse is Project Director of the Teacher Training Program at Florida International University. She has published widely and is active in TESOL.

However, in order to vary teaching style, it is vital to understand the elements that comprise it. Thus, the question of what factors contribute to teaching style deserves close attention. Joyce and Weil (1972) have proposed a model that describes the four principal sources of individual's teaching style: social interaction, information processing (cognitive styles), personality, and behavior modification approaches. However, the question remains -- to what extent is teaching style related to learning style, if at all?

This study examines the relationship that exists between certain parallel aspects of teaching and learning styles.[2] The goals of the research were to answer the following questions:

1) What is the profile of learning styles for a sample group of ESL student teachers?

2) What is the profile of teaching styles for the same group?

3) What, if any, are the significant differences in the group's teaching and learning styles?

In order to assess the ESL student teachers' learning and teaching styles, the author used the Canfield Learning Styles and Instructional Styles Inventories for adults (1980) which are designed to measure identical aspects of teaching and learning styles. Both instruments consist of descriptions of realistic classroom situations and request a rank ordering of preferred reactions to the situations. The Learning Styles Inventory (LSI) contains learning situations and behaviors while the Instructional Styles Inventory (ISI) describes teaching situations and associated behaviors. Both inventories assess the degree of preference for the same conditions, content areas, and modes of teaching and learning.[3] Student responses are scored from 5 to 20 for the ISI and from 6 to 24 for the LSI. A low score indicates a high degree of preference for a particular condition, content area or mode.

Traditionally, the LSI and the ISI have not been used by the same sample population. Typically, teachers take the ISI while the LSI is administered to their students. The results are then compared for the purposes of identifying a "match"

of teaching and learning styles. For the sake of comparison in this study, the ISI and LSI were given to the same sample of sixty ESL student teachers.

Sample and Method

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the teaching and learning styles of a group of ESL student teachers. The sample groups consisted of sixty students from five ESOL teacher training classes – three Curriculum Development in ESOL and two Special Methods of Teaching ESOL classes at Florida International University. The students who participated in the study were either working toward the Masters in TESOL degree or supplemental teacher certification in ESOL. Of the sixty subjects, sixteen were male. Eleven were under 30 years of age; twenty-seven were between 30 and 40 years old; fourteen were between 41 and 50, eight were over 50 years old. The amount of teaching experience among the students varied from 0 to 35 years. Nineteen students had less than four years of teaching experience; eighteen students had taught from four to seven years; ten taught for eight to twelve years; and thirteen claimed more than twelve years of teaching experience. With regard to ethnic backgrounds, participants included seventeen Hispanics, six Haitians, four black Americans and thirty-three Anglo-Americans.

Student scores on the Learning Styles Inventory were converted to conform to the Instructional Styles Inventory scale. The conversion involved a simple transformation of the LSI scores (ranging from 6 to 24) to the ISI scale (with a range of 5 to 20). The data were analyzed for the group mean and standard deviation of each of the sixteen variables on the Learning and Instructional Styles Inventories. Subsequently, the related variables of the two inventories were compared for significant differences through paired t-tests. (See Table 1.)

Assessment Instruments

The limitations of learning styles assessment instruments have been discussed by Gregorc (1979) and Corbett and Smith (1984). Any assessment instrument by necessity must concentrate on the measurement of certain variables, to the inevitable exclusion of others. The breadth and complexity of the field of learning styles makes it impossible to measure all of the known aspects of the styles. Additionally, according to *Student Learning Styles: Diagnosing and Prescribing Programs* (1979), "some of the styles have no generally acceptable testing technique and others are still vague enough that much more investigation is needed" before instruments can be designed to measure them. As Corbett and Smith (1984) illustrated clearly, establishing the validity and reliability of learning styles assessment instruments can be a difficult task. They have stated that ". . .the techniques and quantifiable instruments to ascertain preferential modes of learning are still in the infancy stage." Another problem inherent in self-reporting instruments is the veracity of student response. Students deliberately may not report the truth, or they may misread a statement or question in the testing instrument. Still another possibility for inaccurate responses can be attributed to students not knowing how they would react in a given situation, or which response they actually prefer. A final limitation is the probability of human error in recording answers on the answer sheet, and in interpreting the data. Nevertheless, a standardized instrument whose validity and reliability has been established is a valuable, though far from perfect tool for classroom-based research in teaching and learning styles. As Gaies (1983) notes, "direct external observation and analysis of classroom activity cannot provide accurate insights into learners' conscious thought processes." Allwright (1983) suggests that introspection, that is reflection upon one's own thoughts, feelings, and experiences, may be a more valid research method than direct observation.

The Canfield Learning and Instructional Styles Inventories for adults are relatively easy to administer and score. The results have a practical orientation that provides comprehensible feedback to teachers and students concerning their teaching and learning styles. The results describe eight conditions, four content areas, and four modes of teaching and learning styles.

The eight condition variables are *peer, organization, goal setting, competition, instructor, detail, independence,* and *authority*; each relates to preferred behaviors in teaching and learning situations. For example, the peer variable as a condition of instructional style refers to preference for using student teams and small groups in class and the encouragement of student friendships and good peer relationships. As a condition for learning, the peer variable indicates the degree of student preference for working in teams or small groups, and having strong peer relationships. Table 2 describes the sixteen variables in the study and their implications for teaching and learning styles.

The four content areas of interest to learner and teacher are *numeric, qualitative, inanimate* and *people*. These variables indicate a relative level of interest in the respective areas. The mode variables describe preferences for particular instructional procedures in the areas of lecturing (ISI)/listening (LSI), reading, iconic, and direct experience.

The Learning and Instructional Styles Inventories have a fourth section that was not used in this study, because the two sections measure different things and thus cannot be compared. The fourth section in the ISI measures the degree of responsibility that an instructor accepts for the learning process, while the corresponding section in the LSI assesses the level of performance that a student anticipates to achieve in a class.

Findings

1. Group Profile of Learning Style

The mean response of the group of sixty ESL student teachers was calculated for each variable of the Canfield Learning Styles Inventory. The profile of sample means which is depicted in Figure 1 reflects the average preferences of conditions, content, and mode of learning. Paired t-tests were used to determine the significance of differences between pairs of related variables. Preferences are described as significant at the 95% confidence level (with 59 degrees of freedom). A low score in Figure 1 indicates a strong preference; conversely a high score reflects a lesser degree of preference.

The group of ESL teachers most preferred the variable of instructor as a condition in a learning situation. As learners, they placed great importance on the teacher-student relationship and on having a good rapport with the teacher. The second most favored condition in a learning situation was independence. The ESL student teachers demonstrated a preference for working on their own and determining their own study plan. The next most preferred conditions were *goal setting*, *peer*, and *organization*. Of the eight conditions measured, *detail*, *competition* and *authority* were least preferred.

The favorite content areas of interest to the groups were *people* and *qualitative*, as might be expected from ESL teachers. The least preferred areas of interest were *numeric* and *inanimate*.

With regard to mode of learning, listening was the favored instructional approach, while reading was significantly less preferred than the other three approaches.

2. Group Profile of Teaching Styles

As instructors, the group indicated a significant preference

for the condition of *organization* as the most desirable behavior in a teaching stiuation. Figure 2 illustrates the profile of sample means for the Instructional Styles Inventory. After *organization*, the group preferred *detail*. Favored classroom techniques therefore, would emphasize clear and logical organization of lessons, meaningful and specifically stated assignments, and clearly defined rules. The third most preferred condition for teaching was *instructor*. *Independence* and *competition* were the group's least favored conditions.

The number one content area of interest for the ESL student teachers was *people*, followed closely by *qualitative*. The least preferred content areas were *numeric* and *inanimate*.

The sample group reported preferences for two modes of instruction: direct experience and lecturing. *Iconic* and *reading* were the less preferred instructional approaches.

3. Significant Differences in Aggregate Learning and Teaching Styles

The findings do not support the widely held assumption that teaching styles are closely related to learning styles. In fact, preferences in teaching and learning styles differed significantly for five out of eight conditions, one out of four content areas, and three out of four modes of instruction.

Although the group preferred instructor and independence variables as conditions for learning situations, the same variables were significantly less preferred as conditions for instructional situations. Other differences appeared in the level of preference for the conditions of organization and detail. Both were strongly favored as desirable conditions in teaching situations, but were significantly less favored in a learning situation. The degree of preference for goal setting was significantly higher as a condition for learning rather than teaching.

These differences in degree of preference for conditions seem to indicate the group's desire to have more control and structure as teachers; as learners they preferred to have better

student-teacher relations and learner-centered classroom. A clear distinction between preferred behaviors in teaching and learning styles clearly exists in the sample students.

With regard to content area of interest, a significant difference in preferences was found in the qualitative variable. The group indicated a higher preference for working with words and language as learners than as teachers.

Three modes of instruction also reflected different degrees of preference for teaching and learning styles. Direct experience and reading were more favored as modes of teaching than as modes of learning. On the other hand, listening to lectures and speeches is more preferred as an approach to learning than the corresponding modality of giving lectures is preferred for teaching.

Conclusions

Understanding the relationship of teaching and learning styles is a complex undertaking that presents a challenge to researchers. The results of the study suggest that teaching styles are not as closely related to learning styles as is generally assumed. The findings imply that the group of sixty ESL student teachers use different behaviors to react to similar teaching and learning situations. Although some similarities did exist, the differences in over half of the assessed preferences for conditions and modes of instruction were significant.

The need for more research concerning the relationship of teaching and learning styles is evident, so that educators may accommodate their students' diverse learning styles. Such attempts to vary teaching styles to match learning styles will be more likely to succeed with a better understanding of the nature of these styles.

Table 1

Significance Tests on the Difference Between Sample Means

Variable	LSI Group Mean	ISI Group Mean	Z Value
I. Condition			
a. Peer	12.87	13.35	1.41
b. Organization	13.15	8.42	−8.13
c. Goal Setting	12.28	13.35	2.22
d. Competition	14.75	14.78	.07
e. Instructor	8.68	11.80	5.95
f. Detail	15.12	10.48	−10.05
g. Independence	10.62	14.67	5.96
h. Authority	16.22	13.02	−1.07
II. Content			
a. Numeric	15.45	15.63	.55
b. Qualitative	9.73	10.50	2.72
c. Inanimate	15.07	15.13	.27
d. People	9.38	8.97	−1.46
III. Mode			
a. Listenihg/Lecturing	10.28	12.18	5.43
b. Reading	14.38	13.32	−2.34
c. Iconic	12.55	12.72	.46
d. Direct Experience	12.60	11.45	12.36

N = 60

The test value is significant at the 95% confidence level (with 59 degrees of freedom) when it is greater than $\pm$ 1.96.

Table 2

Summary of Condtions, Content Areas, and Modes

Learning Styles Preferences	Instructional Style Preferences
I. Conditions (of the Teaching/Learning Relationship)	
1. Peer – Working in student teams and small groups, having student friends	Using student teams and small groups, encouraging good peer relationship
2. Organization – Receiving clear and logical organization of course work, meaningful assignments and clearly defined sequence of activities	Logically organizing course work, providing meaningful assignments and clearly defining the sequence of activities
3. Goal Setting – One's own objectives, using feedback to modify goals or procedures	Letting students set their own goals, providing feedback to help them modify their objectives
4. Competition – Desire to compare oneself with other students, need to know how one is doing in relation to others	Creating opportunities for students to be compared with each other and to compete with each other
5. Instructor – Knowing the instructor personally, having a mutual understanding and liking	Encouraging the students to know the instructor personally, to develop a mutual understanding and liking
6. Detail – Receiving specific information on assignments and rules	Providing specific information on assignments, requirements, etc.
7. Independence – Working alone and independently, determining own study plan	Encouraging students to work alone and independently, letting them plan for themselves
8. Authority – Desiring classroom discipline and maintenance of order, having informed and knowledgeable instructors	Maintaining classroom discipline and order, setting high standards and demanding student performance
II. Content (Area of Interest)	
1. Numeric – Working with numbers and logic, computing, solving mathematical problems	

2. Qualitative -- Working with words or language, writing, editing, talking.
3. Inanimate – Working with things, building, repairing, designing, operating
4. People – Working with people, interviewing, counseling, selling, helping

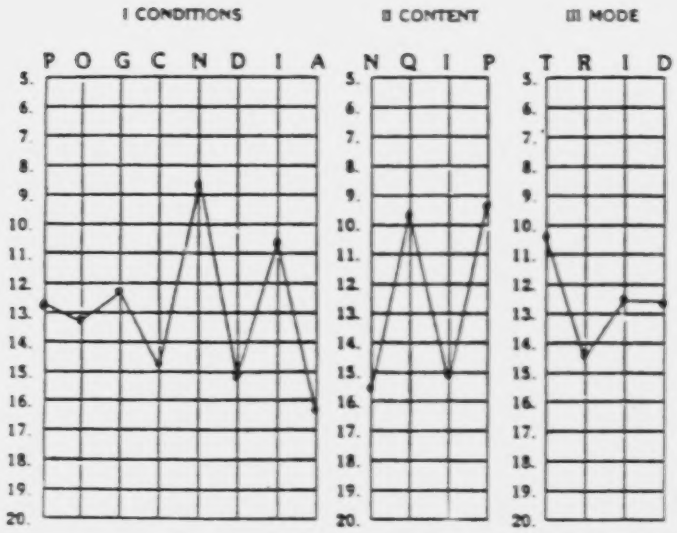
III. Mode (Instructional Procedures)

1. Listening (LSI)/Lecturing (ISI) – Hearing information, lectures, tapes, speeches, etc.	Giving information by lectures, tapes, speeches, etc.
2. Reading – Examining the written, word, reading texts, pamphlets, etc.	Providing reading texts, pamphlets, etc.
3. Iconic – Viewing illustrations, movies, slides, pictures, graphs, etc.	Showing illustrations such as movies, slides, pictures, graphs, etc.
4. Direct Experience – Handling or performing; field trips, role plays, practice exercises	Getting students to handle or perform; field trips, role plays, practice exercises

Adapted from: "Brief description of scales." Canfield Learning Styles Inventory. Plymouth, MI: Humanics, 1979.

Figure 1

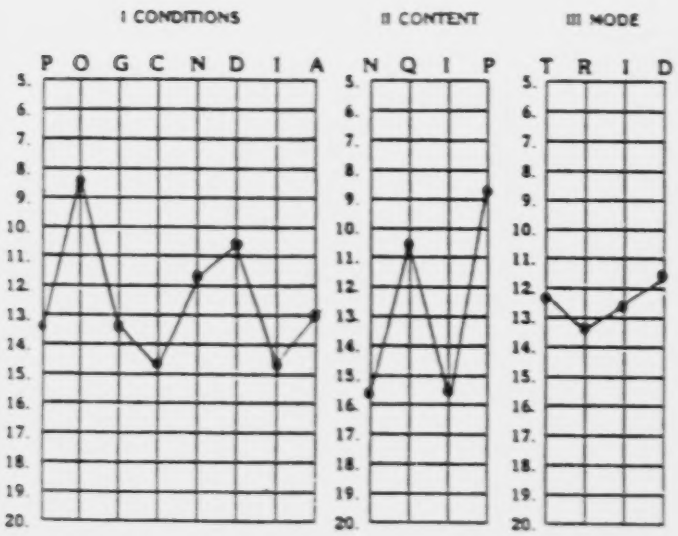
Learning Styles Inventory: Profile of Sample Means*



*N = 60

Figure 2

Instructional Styles Inventory: Profile of Sample Means*



*N = 60

References

Allwright, D. 1983. Classroom-centered research on language teaching and learning: a brief historical overview. *TESOL Quarterly 17*(2): 191-204.

Canfield, A.A. & J.S. Canfield. 1980. *Learning Styles Inventory* and *Instructional Styles Inventory*. Birmingham, MI: Humanics.

Corbett, S. & W.F. Smith. 1984. Identifying student learning styles: proceed with caution. *Modern Language Journal 68*(3):212-21.

Dunn, R.S. & K.J. Dunn. 1979. Learning styles/teaching styles: should they. . .can they. . .be matched? *Educational Leadership 36*(4):238-44.

Gaies, S.J. 1983. The investigation of language classroom processes. *TESOL Quarterly 17*(2):205-17.

Gregorc, A.F. 1979. Learning and teaching styles: potent forces behind them. *Educational Leadership 36*(4):234-6.

Joyce, B. & M. Weil. 1972. *Models of Teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Laosa, L.M. 1977. Cognitive styles and learning strategies research. *Journal of Teacher Education 28*(3):26-30.

National Association of Secondary School Principals. 1979. *Student Learning Styles: Diagnosing and Prescribing Programs*. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Witkin, H.A. 1976. Cognitive style in academic performance and in teacher-student relations. In S. Messick (Ed.), *Individuality in Learning*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

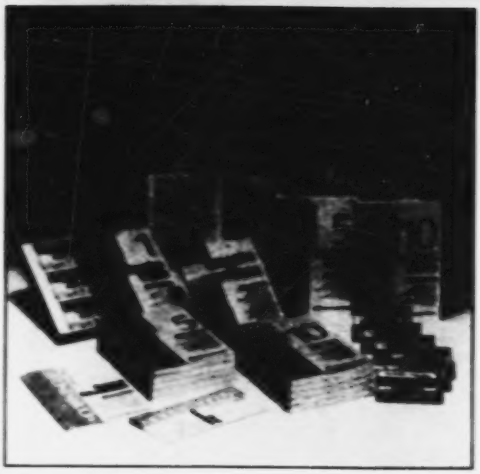
Notes

[1]A preliminary version of this paper was presented at the TESOL '85 conference in New York City on April 11, 1985.

[2]Dr. Joseph Cook, Ms. Blanca Garcia and Dr. Marisal Reyes Gavilan made invaluable comments on the research design and project. Dr. Albert Canfield kindly provided insight into the application of his Learning and Instructional Styles Inventories.

[3]The instruments are available through: Humanics Media, 5457 Pine Code Road, La Crescenta, California 91214.

MODERN ENGLISH



CYCLE ONE

NEW EDITION

An immense wealth of communication exercises each preceded by fluency practices for learning in sequences of controlled to freer practice and extended freer conversations, introducing a great many conversational expressions and vocabulary.

MODERN ENGLISH CYCLE ONE

●モダン・イングリッシュ・サイクル1

Charts & Pictures (チャート&ブック)	¥1,200
Text (テキスト) Books 1–5	@¥1,000
Text (テキスト) Books 6–10	@¥1,200
Practice Tapes (プラクティス・テープ) Books 1–10	@¥7,000
Teacher's Guide (教師用ガイド) Books 1–5	@¥600
Teacher's Guide (教師用ガイド) Books 6–10	@¥600
Lab Tapes (LLテープ) Books 1–10	@¥18,000

The system that gets people talking

Seido is happy to introduce to you the new edition of its popular *Modern English, Cycle One* series, the most comprehensive conversation course designed specifically for Japanese "false" beginners and intermediates. This new edition incorporates the experience of many teachers over more than twenty years and positive trends in language teaching, always keeping in mind the needs of students in Japan. It offers communication-centered lessons that teach students to use English structures correctly and creatively.

Exercises come in sequences of controlled to freer practice, and then extended freer conversations appropriate for each level. Each exercise is accompanied by fluency practices and short dialogues so appreciated by students in Japan. Pair work, abundant visual and listening material, and a practical emphasis on Business English also characterize this new edition, together with new and imaginative ways to use Dialogue and Narrative material.

The course is extensive and suitable for almost any level of conversation proficiency. It is also adaptable to different kinds of students. Teachers will have no problem tailoring the approach to their own teaching situation. A wide variety of teaching procedures has been summarized on a *List of Procedures*, for easy reference. This is supplemented by *Teacher's Guides*, with specific suggestions for each lesson, and the *General Introduction*, with a thorough overview of the course. Worksheets have been added for Listening Comprehension practice, to focus attention, enhance concentration and help with problem vocabulary.

Also, no other course available on the market can really compare with the plentiful stock of recorded material (American English). These, plus a clear, easy-to-follow format and presentation have made *Modern English, Cycle One* the popular program it is.

We are confident that a try-out of our new *Cycle One* will be the best way for you to see that it does "get people talking." Books 1–9 are already available; the rest will be soon.

seido language institute
12–6 Funado-cho, Ashiya-shi 659, Japan

seido セイドー外国語研究所

資料請求 COUPON 81-W JALT

CROSS CURRENTS

AN INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Cross Currents **pursues both theoretical and practical issues central to ESL/EFL instructors. Within each issue, you'll discover articles about English language teaching theory, balanced by ideas for daily lesson planning, all of which is put into international perspective by cross-cultural themes.**

Look at selections from recent issues:

- Duppenthaler: "A Review of Cognitive Styles of Learning and Their Applications in TESOL."
- Kitao: "Using Authentic Video Materials."
- Dussourd: "An American Teacher in Kiev: Impressions of English Education in the U.S.S.R."
- La Forge: "Community Language Learning."
- Sports Special: A Collection of Sports-Related EFL/ESL Exercises.
- Plus Bright Ideas and Book Reviews.

ISSN 0289-1239

Cross Currents Written *by* teachers *for* teachers.

SUBSCRIPTIONS	Single Issue	1 Year	2 Years
Inside Japan	¥1,250	¥2,500	¥5,000
Outside Japan	$6.00	$10.00	$18.00
Institutions	—	$15.00	$25.00

Special rates available for JALT members.

Cross Currents is published twice a year by the Language Institute of Japan.

• ***Japan Subscriptions:***
School Book Service
Ohkawa Building
3-23-4 Takadanobaba
Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160
03-364-1261
(By postal transfer to Tokyo postal account No. 9-86192, or cash delivery - Genkin Kakitome.)

• ***U.S. Subscriptions:***
Alemany Press
2501 Industrial Pkwy. W.
Hayward, CA 94545
(800)-227-2375
(Make checks payable to Alemany Press.)

• ***Other:***
Cross Currents
Language Institute of Japan
4-14-1 Shiroyama
Odawara, Kanagawa 250
Japan
(Make checks payable to *Cross Currents* (LIOJ) drawn on a U.S. bank.

TEACHING WRITING AS A PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION AT THE TERTIARY LEVEL

Michele M. Chan

Abstract

The way composition is often taught takes no account of the processes by which people produce writing and ignores the primary purpose of writing: communication. Students write only for a teacher whose comments give students the impression that what was said is less important than how it was said. Standardized forms are taught without helping students to see that the content and purpose determine the form. Thus students find the techniques of writing and rules of language use they are taught arbitrary and sometimes irrelevant.

Recently there has been a great deal of research into how ESL/EFL writers compose. However, teachers sometimes find it difficult to translate the latest theories into a course design and day to day teaching practices. At the Chinese University of Hong Kong we have designed a writing course that takes into account research into how people compose and which emphasizes writing as communication. Our course design and the assumptions upon which it is based form the basis of this paper.

Ms. Chan earned an M.A. degree from Michigan State University. She is presently teaching at The Chinese University of Hong Kong, from which she hopes to take leave in the near future to pursue a Ph.D. program in the United States. Currently she is working on a textbook for use by ESL/EFL writing students.

In spite of the findings of researchers who are studying how ESL/EFL writers compose, many teachers of writing continue to hold outdated notions about the nature of composition and how it is best taught to students at advanced levels. This is reflected in course designs which place undue emphasis on grammatical accuracy or which are organized around rhetorical patterns of idea development. Overemphasizing grammatical correctness and teaching rhetorical patterns as containers into which ideas must be made to fit both suggest to students that concern with form is more important than concern with content. In addition, such course designs tend to provide little specific and practical guidance on how to go about writing: how to get ideas, develop and shape them, and examine them critically with a purpose and audience in mind.

Teachers at the English Language Teaching Unit of the Chinese University of Hong Kong have put together a writing program which applies the findings of recent research into the composing processes of non-native speakers of English and ways to help them develop writing proficiency. A description of one of our courses, Writing Skills, and the theoretical assumptions upon which it is based may provide some suggestions for others who teach writing to advanced ESL/EFL students at the university level.

Assumptions

How we view the way people compose, as well as our beliefs about how writing is best taught and learned, determine how we plan writing courses for our students. Viewing writing as an act of communication with readers to accomplish specific purposes has a profound effect on course design, as does being aware of the complex processes involved in writing.

This notion contains three important assumptions about writing that need to be broken down and considered separately:

1) People write to communicate with readers.
2) People write to accomplish specific purposes.
3) Writing is a complex process.

Writing is an act of communication since we usually write to be read by others. As with other types of communication, there is, as Morrow (1981) suggests, an "information gap" as writers are trying to share with readers some information or a way of thinking that they presume readers don't have. In fact this is particularly true of writing because normally readers are unwilling to use time and effort reading things that contain nothing new. At some point writers and their work get a response of some kind: an interview, action, agreement, a smile – or perhaps a rejection, a feeling of disgust, or failure to read all the way through.

McKay (1979) discusses the importance of helping students to become more aware of writing as an act of communication, and describes writing assignments which contain a target audience. She explains that including a description of the audience in assignments ensures that communication of meaning is the goal of student writers. If a teacher's purpose is to enable students to write after finishing a course, this seems more realistic and preferable to a classroom situation in which very little communication takes place. Less learning takes place in situations in which the only reader is a teacher who is very little concerned with content but only responds to how a piece is written. This is especially true when the response merely consists of pejorative comments about surface correctness and perhaps whether or not students followed the assignment. In such a situation students come to see writing as merely an exercise, not as an act of communication.

Failure to make clear to students the second point, that writing is usually done for a purpose, also leads to them feeling that writing is only meaningless drudgery. They will lack motivation to write because they will not see its relevance to their lives. But writers usually write to have some effect on readers,

and this intent shapes how they present what they say. This is especially obvious when the purpose of the writing is to accomplish something concrete, such as a job application letter written for the purpose of being asked for an interview. But it is no less true of writing that aims to inform, convince, or amuse readers.

Asking students to keep an audience and intent in mind has the effect of making our instruction more meaningful and relevant – and more practical. Techniques of writing, notions of correctness, language form, rhetorical form, and style are thus taught as tools for writers to use to help them achieve an intent. Writing is then evaluated on how successful it is in achieving the writer's intent. An advantage of looking at writing in this way is that teachers are free to address student needs as they arise while writing, and students will be more motivated to learn about these technical matters in the context of writing something they care about and that they know will be read by others.

The third broad assumption was that writing, in any language, is a complex process. This is borne out by the work of a number of prominent researchers such as Zamel (1982, 1983), Raimes (1985), Lay (1982), and others. Zamel (1982) discusses important research into composing processes of native speakers of English. She also identifies a shift from focusing on the products of writing to being concerned about the process and talks about implications of this for the teaching of composition to non-native speakers. One important finding of researchers who have studied how people compose is that writing is a process that involves discovery of meaning as one writes. (See Emig 1971 and Hairston 1982.) Zamel (1983), Taylor (1981) and others have discussed the inappropriateness of teaching techniques such as outlining, beginning with a thesis sentence and rewriting solely for the purpose of correcting grammatical and usage errors, saying that these are contrary to the notion of writing as a thinking, discovering process.

Most researchers in this area attempt to define stages or elements in the process of writing. Murray (1978) explains that prewriting, writing, and rewriting are the terms most often used. Flower and Hayes (1981), however, caution that these are not linear steps. They propose a hierarchical structure for their process model. In it they emphasize writing as a thinking process, mention sub-processes, and show how these interact in the total process.

Zamel (1982, 1983, 1984) describes how ESL writers compose: how they generate ideas, write out and develop them, and then revise their work. Through observing ESL writers as they composed, interviewing them, and examining their work, she came to the conclusion that ESL writers experience the same kind of processes as native speakers do.

In addition to assumptions about the nature of writing itself, there are two additional assumptions about teaching writing. The first is that writing is best taught by having students write as much as possible. Lectures on grammar or techniques of writing, at least for advanced students, should be kept to a minimum so that as much time as possible can be used for students to write and discuss their writing with classmates. Corder (1977) talks about the effectiveness of learning by doing. He describes learning tasks in which the ability to use the language is achieved through using the language. By having students learn to write by writing, the writing becomes both the end and the means.

Another assumption about the teaching of writing is that students should be encouraged to keep separate the times when they are working with creating meaning and the times when they are thinking about how best to present their meaning to their readers. Perhaps it is possible for experienced writers to both think of what they want to write and look critically at their writing as they are producing it, but inexperienced writers such as ESL/EFL writers can do both things more efficiently if they do them at different times. This especially means that concern with grammatical accuracy

must be postponed until ideas are developed.

These assumptions, then, form the basis for the design of the Writing Skills course offered by the English Language Teaching Unit of the Chinese University of Hong Kong. How they are put into practice will be discussed in the section on Course Design, below.

Students Needs and our Goals

Language courses are often made up of heterogeneous groups of students. The Writing Skills course is made up of students with a common mother tongue, Chinese, who have all studied English for more than 12 years. But they may have very little else in common: They have different majors, are at different stages in their university career from freshman to senior, have differing levels of English language proficiency, and have varying attitudes about how much effort they should devote to an elective course such as this one. Thus they will have different needs and interests, making it impossible to teach specific types of writing, such as the research paper or the job application letter. These constraints, in addition to the number of hours per week (3) and the length of the term (14 weeks) make it necessary to aim at rather general goals for the course.

Another constraint is class size. Although our class size of 15 to 20 students may seem small in comparison with class sizes elsewhere, we depend to a great extent on small group work and try to train students to give each other feedback and response to their writing. Students have to get used to not being dependent on the teacher alone for guidance and learn to trust their classmates. This is necessary so that lots of writing can be worked through the various stages in the writing process.

What we want students to gain from the course can be simply stated, but many things are involved, as will be made clear in the description of the course design. In general,

however, we want students to gain the ability to write well for any audience they encounter, for any purpose they may have. We hope that by giving them general guidance, as well as an abundance of practice and opportunities to get responses, they will be able to do these things.

Course Design and Classroom Techniques

All of the aspects of good writing talked about in class are immediately practiced in short in-class assignments, and also in two longer, more formal, writing assignments. At the beginning of the Writing Skills course, students start work on the first of these major assignments, each taking about six weeks to finish. These projects are to be approximately 800-1,200 words in length, and no topic or form is specified, though recently we have experimented with requiring that the topic be descriptive in nature so that students can learn to use specific details to develop their ideas fully. Students have chosen topics such as the following:

- an experience as a member of the Hong Kong Air Cadet Corps
- the 1985 international dragon boat races
- the reality of technical schools
- a story about what would happen in Hong Kong were a nuclear war to break out
- Chinese funerals in ancient times
- the fitness craze
- cooking and eating dog meat

With topics in mind students are asked to clarify their intent or purpose by writing a topic proposal. An example is given to them:

> *I want to present the thesis that boredom is one of the major problems facing old people in Hong Kong today. My intent is to give reasons why I consider this problem so serious so that I can convince readers to be*

more aware of it and thus more sympathetic towards old people in their own families. From my perspective as a member of the Social Work Department, I would also like to propose some solutions to this problem.

In this topic proposal students must state what effect they wish to have on their audience: to get the audience to give them information, for example, to do them a favor or to take action of some sort, to get the audience to believe something, to entertain the audience, and so on. Sometimes student writers, perhaps because they don't have the needs of the audience in mind, aren't able to define their purpose, or if they can, it's very vague. Thus the writing they produce is vague, general, or incoherent. No amount of instruction on how to link paragraphs or develop ideas can cure the problem if students don't have a purpose clearly in mind as they write. It may be a bit more difficult to keep in mind an abstract intent or purpose, such as to inform or entertain, than it is to remember a more obvious purpose such as soliciting information or getting someone to take action on a complaint. But in academic situations the purpose is often rather abstract, and thus ESL/EFL writers should become familiar with this kind of writing.

A result of our emphasis on intent or purpose is that when teachers give feedback during the stages of composing, they can talk about both strengths and weaknesses, not in terms of objective standards, but in terms of whether or not the piece of writing is effective in achieving the writer's intent. Areas that we cover in class such as how to write effective introductions and conclusions, how to develop ideas through description and exemplification, how to do persuasive writing, and how to achieve an effective style, all seem practical and comprehensible as techniques to help student writers achieve their purposes. Instruction in points of grammar and word choice also seem relevant in this context.

Along with getting and keeping intent firmly in mind, students must keep in mind to whom they are writing. We

believe that helping students analyze the audiences they will write for is very important. Our students are asked to consider various things:

- Who is the audience?
- What are its members' backgrounds, experiences with the topic, interests, opinions, ages, sex, and so on?
- Will the members of the audience tend to be receptive, neutral, or hostile?
- Are members of the audience general readers or specialists in a field?
- What effect will these facts have on the students' writing?

Although an ideal situation would be one in which many different genuine audiences would be available, it is difficult to arrange such a situation. However, one group of readers that is readily available is the members of the class. Therefore, we ask students to assume that the audience for the things they write for our course is their classmates and the teacher. Assuming this we can confirm the results of the audience analysis. More importantly, perhaps, we can then use classmates to provide feedback for unfinished pieces so that students can rewrite, and to give response to finished work. Students will then know whether or not their writing was effective for their audience. Limitations of giving exposure to only one audience may be outweighed by the advantages of students being able to get feedback and response from a real audience.

Having intent and audience in mind, students are ready to begin to sharpen their ideas and then to write their projects. Because we want to give our students specific guidance about how to go about writing we talk about elements in the process of writing, emphasizing that it is not a linear process and that individuals vary in the order they experience the elements and the amount of time they spend on each. While we are discussing each element, students are working on their own pieces of writing, trying to pay more attention to their own process of writing and keeping the times they are inventing separate from

the times they are being critical.

We first talk about generating ideas and do some group work in this area. This is woven in with the work on intent and audience analysis. A central emphasis is choosing aspects of a topic that will be interesting and thought-provoking to the audience. Students are sometimes asked to get into small groups, and tell each other what their topics are. The group members write down, and then later discuss, what they already know about the topic, and thus what the writer should avoid, and what they would like to know more about on that topic. At this time we also help students to narrow and focus their topics so that they avoid being over general or trying to cover too much. Students also engage in other prewriting activities, such as those mentioned by Spack (1984).

Then students write first drafts, paying attention to content rather than correctness or arrangement of ideas. This is especially important for these students who are not writing in their native language as they tend to over-emphasize correctness or worry about it too much during the early stages of composing. The first drafts are then given to classmates for feedback which can be used when the authors revise their work.

We arrange the feedback in this way. First we give students some preparation in the form of advice on how to give helpful feedback. (See Elbow 1980 and Macrorie 1980.) We also give a checklist of specific points to consider and an old student composition that they can practice giving feedback on and that teachers can use to model giving feedback. Some of the guidelines we give the students are these: look both for things the writer has done well and things that make the piece less effective; be tactful and remember that your comments are only your opinion; remember that it's a draft and not a finished work (so comments on editing conventions will not be appropriate at this point); and most importantly, point to specific places the writer has done something well or failed to, and offer alternatives if possible. Also, writers are encouraged to ask questions about things they have had trouble with.

Questions on the feedback checklist address techniques of writing that have been discussed in class, and aim at getting student readers to be specific in their comments. Here are a few examples of questions that are asked.

Intent – What do you think was the writer's intent or purpose, that is, what effect was he or she trying to have on you, the reader? (Please choose one from the list below and explain if necessary.)

– to inform you about _____
For what purpose? _____
– to amuse you _____
– to convince you to change your thinking about _____
– to get you to take action _____ What? _____
– to make you feel something _____ What? _____
– other – explain _____

Did the paper have the effect on you that you think the writer intended?

yes ____ no ____ somewhat, but needs work ____

If you answered "yes," please note on the draft places you think the writer has done a good job in achieving his or her intent.

If you answered "no" or "needs work," please offer suggestions (on the draft) about how the writer could strenghen the piece so that the intent can be achieved.

Idea Development – After you have finished reading the whole piece do you have any questions? Please write them here:

Try to express the main point in one sentence:

If you are unable to do so, can you explain why?

Were there enough details and examples to support the main idea?

yes _____ no _____

If your answer was "yes," *from memory* please write as many of the writer's details, examples, reasons, arguments, as you can (in any order):

If you answered "no," could you suggest any supporting points the writer might use?

Are all of the supporting points relevant to the topic?
yes _____ no _____

If your answer is "no," please indicate on the draft any irrelevant parts.

Other areas mentioned on the feedback checklist are topic choice, idea arrangement, and style, each with several specific questions. Students are put into groups of three to four members, asked to exchange copies of their drafts and then make comments at home. They later discuss each other's work in class with the feedback checklist as a guide. Afterwards they can give the completed feedback checklist to their group members to use as reference for revision work.

Some students have questioned this feedback procedure. They have had some difficulty at first with accepting the advice of their classmates. They doubt that their peers are qualified to give them helpful advice, and they are in the habit of looking only to the teacher for judgements about the quality of their writing. However, they come to realize that since their classmates are the target audience, their comments about the effectiveness of the writing are extremely valuable. And indeed classmates are able to be more objective about their writing than are the student writers themselves. However, to help to relieve their doubts, teachers also read the drafts of the first assignment and make comments. To ensure that the student writers take the advice of their peers seriously and that they are able to examine their own work and identify problem areas, we have them enclose lists of questions about their drafts. Teachers, then, will only address the questions

asked by the student writers and will restrain themselves from commenting on anything else. A good question might be something like this: "My group members said that the section on dieting is not relevant for a paper on fitness. Do you agree?" A question that would not be allowed would be, "Are there any problem areas in this paper?"

Some students have also complained that this feedback process is unrealistic since later they will have no one to give them feedback. But we inform them that the second writing project will receive no teacher input, though classmates will again be asked to give feedback. We also explain to them that by giving feedback to others they are learning skills that will help them to examine their own work more critically. In addition, we remind them that they are free to accept or reject advice given by peers or teacher.

After receiving feedback students turn their attention to revising and working toward completed pieces. This is not to say that revision only occurs late in the process, for revision may be constantly going on, even in the writing of the initial draft, since people work in different ways. But we want our students to try to wait until the initial, idea-generating step is finished before they start being critical of their work, and we also want them to learn that revision can sometimes mean extensive rewriting – something different from the editing that goes on at the end.

Sometimes students have trouble seeing that there are many ways of expressing the same idea. In order to make that point we do a simple exercise in class. Students are given a topic (recently, for example, I asked them to explain to me why lately in Hong Kong there had been so many cases of mothers committing suicide and killing their small children at the same time). In this activity students write for five or ten minutes on the topic, and their papers are collected. Then, they are asked to write once again *on the same topic*. Often I have them do it for a third time. Afterwards, we discuss the differences between the three drafts and which was better. Sometimes I ask

the students to take the papers home and revise them into one perfected draft. Thus they begin to understand that even though words have been put down on paper, there is nothing final about a piece of writing until a writer decides to stop working on it. For both the revision and the editing stages we give the students advice and exercises of a traditional sort, and for the discussion of editing we provide some guidelines which mention some recurring problems of Cantonese speakers writing in English, as well as standard editing conventions. Class time is used for student peers to help with the editing.

Finally comes the response. On the day when final drafts are due the class time is used for class members to read papers they have not already read and then to write responses. A short list of questions is attached to guide the students' response. The questions are these:

- What was the writer's main point, and what was his or her intent? (Answer something like this: The writer's main point was that the problems of the elderly in Hong Kong should not be ignored or minimized with the excuse that the old people's families will take care of them. His intent was to give us more information about the problems that old people face so that we'll be more aware of the problem and try to help old people more.)

- What do you think were the *specific* strong points about this piece? (The title that attracted interest? The strong conclusion? The useful examples? The style? The clear arrangement of points? The new and thoughtful aspects of the point that were emphasized? And so on . . .)

- What is your response to this piece? (Answer more fully, but something like this: I agree that the elderly have many problems that their families are not helping them with. I suggest that the government should implement some sort of financial aid scheme and/or re-examine the mandatory retirement age. My grandmother sounds a lot like the example you have given.)

Then final drafts are given to teachers to evaluate. Zamel (1985) raises issues and gives suggestions for responding to student writing. In the Writing Skills course we try to ask questions about areas of content we don't understand or that we wonder about. We offer suggestions about how to make the writing more effective, keeping in mind the students' intents. We collect both first and final drafts and comment about the number and effectiveness of revisions. Some of our teachers have tried having conferences with students, as Murray (1979) suggests, and others make comments only on what has been recently discussed in class. In any case we try not to overwhelm students by mentioning every area in which there are problems, and certainly we will make as many positive comments as possible.

One way we have tried to make the teachers' more systematic is to have a checklist of points, with points being arranged roughly in order of importance, depending on the type of writing being done. With the idea of effectiveness (or lack of it) in communicating meaning in mind, teachers make comments going down the list, only moving to the next item if there are no major problems in the previous ones. This might be the order of points for an academic essay:

- *content* topic choice, idea development
- *idea arrangement* introductions, conclusion, titles, transitional devices, format)
- *style* word choice, sentence structure)
- *grammar*

It should be clear from the preceding description of the Writing Skills course that a large amount of the class time is devoted to working on the large writing projects: getting ideas for them, receiving feedback, revising them, getting response to them. Along the way, as has been mentioned, techniques for making writing more effective, such as use of descriptive details, are discussed, and short in-class writings are assigned. For example, in the unit on developing ideas through descrip-

tive details, students might be asked to close their eyes while the teacher takes them on an imaginary trip, across the water to a small island, through the jungle, and up the mountain in search of the wise old man who will answer a question if he can be found. At the entrance to the old man's cave, the teacher will stop and ask students to complete the story and then write the ending, being as descriptive as possible. We believe that encouraging students to have fun with their writing is a way to motivate them and we believe that helping students to have confidence in their ability to write is essential.

The Writing Skills course features another kind of writing, though it is not generally done in class. To provide regular practice in writing, which will enhance fluency, and also to provide a balance to the formal writing assignments and in-class writings we ask students to do, we also ask them to keep writing journals. An excellent article on the benefits of using the journal in the ESL classroom is by Spack and Sadow (1983). Our use of the journal is a bit different from theirs in that we allow our students to write about whatever they like rather than just what goes on in class. We ask students to keep an exercise book and write a page in it three times per week. These are not meant to be diary entries but records of observations, responses to class, things they have read or to daily life, descriptions, and so on. These entries can often provide ideas for other writing activities. Students are asked not to be concerned with accuracy as much as fluency. The purpose of the journals is to give students whose experience with English has been mostly passive absorption of knowledge about the language a chance to use it and even to experiment with it. Students report that at the end of the term they can write much faster and with more ease.

Teachers evaluate the journals mainly for effort, thoughtfulness and correct number of entries. Perhaps because of the emphasis on content, the journals may be the most genuinely communicative aspect of the course. Teachers respond to the ideas and experiences related, expressing their agreement or

disagreement, sharing similar experiences, expressing surprise, or even confusion, and so on. Dialogues between teachers and students are established, and this aids in building rapport. Students also are able to make comments about the course that they might hesitate to make in front of the class or even privately to the teachers. Some of the teachers of the course also keep journals which they make available for student inspection.

Conclusion

The intent of this article has been to describe our Writing Skills course at the Chinese University of Hong Kong and the assumptions upon which it is based so that other teachers may see how current ideas about communicative language teaching and composition can be applied to course design for students at this level. No formal study has been done to see if this course has been able to produce student writers who write better and with more ease than students who have taken more traditional courses, but intuitively we feel that it has and that we are moving in the right direction. One drawback of trying to assess students' improvement in writing skill is that it seems to come slowly and may be more apparent at some time in the future. But we would like to think that our students leave the course with a greater understanding of how to go about writing and how to write effectively for whatever purpose or audience they may need to write for in the future.

References

Corder, P. 1977. Language teaching and learning: a social encounter. In H. D. Brown, C. A. Yorio, R. H. Crymes (Eds.), *On TESOL '77 Teaching and Learning English as a Second Language: Trends in Research and Practice*, Washington D.C.: TESOL, 1-13.

Elbow, P. 1981. *Writing with power*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Emig, J. 1971. *The Composing Process of Twelfth Graders*. Urbana, Illinois: NCTE.

Flower, L. and Hayes, J. R. 1981. A cognitive process theory of writing. *College Composition and Communication 32*, 365-387.

Hairston, M. 1982. The winds of change: Thomas Kuhn and the revolution in the teaching of writing. *College Composition and Communication 33*, 76-88.

Lay, N. D. S. 1982. Composing processes of adult ESL learners: A case study. *TESOL Quarterly 16*, 406.

McKay, S. 1979. Communicative writing. *TESOL Quarterly* 13, 73-80.

Macrorie, K. 1980. *Telling Writing*. Rochelle Park, New Jersey: Hayden Book Company Inc.

Mohan, B. A., and Lo, W. A. 1985. Academic writing and Chinese students: Transfer and development factors, *TESOL Quarterly, 19*, 515-534.

Morrow, K. 1981. Principles of communicative methodology. In K. Johnson and K. Morrow (Eds.), *Communication in the Classroom*, Hong Kong: Longman Group Ltd., 59-66.

Murray D. 1978. Internal revision: A process of discovery. In *Research on Composing*, Urbana, Illinois: NCTE, 83-103.

Murray, D. 1979. The listening eye: Reflections on the writing conference. *College English 41*, 13-18.

Raimes, A. 1985. What unskilled ESL students do as they write: A classroom study of composing. *TESOL Quarterly 19*, 229-238.

Spack, R. 1984. Invention strategies and the ESL college composition student. *TESOL Quarterly 18*, 649-670.

Taylor, B. P. 1981. Content and written form: A two-way street. *TESOL Quarterly 15*, 5-13.

Zamel, V. 1982. Writing: The process of discovering meaning. *TESOL Quarterly* 16.

Zamel, V. 1983. The composing processes of advanced ESL students: Six case studies. *TESOL Quarterly 17*, 165-188.

Zamel, V. 1984. In search of the key: Research and practice in composition. In J. Handscombe, R. Orem, and B. Taylor (Eds.), *On TESOL '83*, Washington, D.C.: TESOL, 195-207.

Zamel, V. 1985. Responding to student writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19, 79-102.

ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE EXAMINATIONS
Conducted by THE DELEGACY OF LOCAL EXAMINATIONS
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD

実用・実務英語検定試験

オックスフォード大学英語検定試験
受験案内

オックスフォード大学海外試験運営委員会事務局

IES国際教育文化交流協会

後援 学研

〒104 東京都中央区銀座4-2-2 ヤヨイビル
☎03-563-3611(代)

83

受験要項

1986年の世界統一試験日（1986年度）

PRELIMINARY LEVEL Junior	
PRELIMINARY LEVEL General	
HIGHER LEVEL	

受験時間

PRELIMINARY LEVEL（初級及び中級）
第1時限 10:00 - 12:00
第2時限 14:00 - 16:10

HIGHER LEVEL（上級）
第1時限 10:00 - 13:00
第2時限 14:00 - 17:10

各レベルの希望試験日を上記の各日より1つだけお選び下さい。
尚、団体で受験を希望されるときは、別途日時を設けることもできます。

申込み方法

直接申込む場合

別添の返信用封筒を利用して申込書を事務局に直接送付して下さい。
また、受験料は別添の銀行送金用紙をご利用下さい。

書店を経由して申込む場合

大学生協・丸善、紀伊國屋、旭屋、　その他有名書店に備えつけの申込用紙を使用して下さい。受験料は、直接書店に支払う事が出来ます。

学校を経由して申込む場合

学校の教務課に、お問合せ下さい。

※書店及び学校を経由して申込む場合には推学研のセレクター及びアシスターがお手伝いします。

詳しい受験に関するお問合せは
オックスフォード大学海外試験運営委員会事務局
IES国際教育文化交流協会
〒104 東京都中央区銀座4-2-2 ヤヨイビル
☎03-563-3611(代)

申込み期限

希望受験日より20日前までに上記事務局に必着するようお送りください。

受験資格

年齢制限はありません。

合格発表

試験日より約10週間後に、試験結果をお知らせします。合格者には、オックスフォード大学海外試験委員会より、検定合格証明書を、日本事務局経由でお送りします。

受験料及び支払方法

Preliminary Level Junior 及び General（一般初級・一般中級試験）	¥7,000円
Higher Level（上級試験）	¥9,000円

試験の場所と日時

東京、大阪、名古屋、札幌、福岡の会場で、同日、同時刻に行ないます。会場名及び所在地詳しい時間は追って御案内致します。

試験当日持参するもの

1) 受験票（所定のもの）
2) 筆記用具
3) 英英辞典（特に指定されたものはありませんが日本語記載のないもの）

三段階の資格と評価

PRELIMINARY LEVEL Junior 初中級編

対象　高校生以上　大学生まで

オックスフォード大学ではPRELIMINARYのJunorレベルは世界中の高校生を対象として作られている試験です。

英英辞典を使いながら、与えられた問題がどれだけ理解でき、その上でどれだけ、その設問に答えることができるかを見ます。

このレベルに合格された方はPRELIMINARYを受ける力を持っていることになります。

PRELIMINARY LEVEL General 一般中級編

対象　高校生、大学生以上　社会人まで

このPRELIMINARY LEVELは、大学生や一般社会人が中心となるレベルと考えられます。

このPRELIMINALY LEVELは世界的レベルでは、英語運用力はあるというレベルであります。

このレベルは合格判定が3段階にわかれます。PASS(合格)、CREDIT(良)、DISTINCTION(優良)に分かれます。

PASS(合格)＝日本の大学入試試験でそれ相応の点を得られる英語力が認められる評価点です。しかも英英辞典の使い方も基本的に、マスターしていることの証明にもなります。

CREDIT(良)＝英国・米国のカレッヂに入学出来る程度の英語力が認められます。又この評価点は、一般的なビジネス英語をこなせる能力の証明にもなります。

DISTINCTION(優良)＝この評価点が得られれば、十分英・米の大学に入学出来る程度の英語力が認められる証明になります。さらに英英辞典の活用能力にも習熟していることが認められます。

HIGHER LEVEL(上級試験)

対象　大学生・社会人以上

世界的レベルでは英語を集中的に2年間勉強した方となっておりますが、日本レベルでは、語学学校の最上級クラス、大学英文科上級者、一般企業人、および英語教育関係者、政府機関など国際的業務の方々のレベルです。

また海外でよい間生活した方々にもこのレベルがよいと思われます。

PASS(合格)＝海外の大学に入学出来る程度の文章英語力があると認められます。又、日本国内においては、英語文書に接する機会の多い職場で仕事が出来る評価点でもあります。一般的レベルでは問題ない英語力があることになります。

CREDIT(良)＝一般に、アイビーリーグとよばれているアメリカの一流大学や、英国の公立大学に入学出来る程度の文章英語力があると認められます。又、この評価点は、英語を日常使用する職場において、立派に英語をこなせる能力のある証明にもなります。

さらに国際的業務において不足をきたさない英語力を持ち、どの企業においても英語力では他にひけをとらない力を認める。

DISTINCTION(優良)＝アメリカの一流大学をはじめ、英国の大学に入学出来る程度の、文章英語力があると認められます。実社会の職場においては、最もたよりがいのある文章英語力が備わっていることの証明になります。またさらに国際的業務にたずさわる英語力は完全にできている証明のレベルです。

特　色

受験内容

PRELIMINARY LEVEL　Junior　（初級試験）

試験は　時限に分けて行われ

一時限目の試験（2時間）では：①ペンパルに手紙を書く②問い合せの手紙を書く③友人にメモを書く

二時限目の試験（2時間）では：①申し込み用紙などに自分の名前、生年月日等を記入する②パンフレットなどを読み質問に答える③単語の意味を説明する。

PRELIMINARY LEVEL（中級試験）

試験は、　時限に分けて行われ、

一時限目の試験（2時間）では：①手紙を書く（フォーマルなものとインフォーマルなもの）②伝言や掲示文、ラベルなどを書く③広告への応募文や友人への招待状などを書く。

二時限目の試験（2時間）では：①英英辞典を使い単語の意味に関する質問に答える。（英英辞典の活用能力）②各種の書式を書き込む③パンフレット、契約書、説明書などを読んで質問に答える。

HIGHER LEVEL（上級試験）

試験は　時限に分けて行われ、

一時限目（3時間）では：おもに表現力が試され、例えば①報告文や履歴書を書く。②広告文や推薦文、抗議文などを書く③全般的な文章力をより洗練された形で表現する。

二時限目の試験（3時間）では：おもに、理解力が試され、①与えられた情報にもとずいて質問に答える。（英語による抽象的思考能力が問われる）②比較訂正をする。③必要な情報を取捨選択する。④その他の作文。

＊上記の試験内容は、あくまでも過去のテストの中にみられる傾向であり、今後の試験で必ずしも同様の内容が出題されるとは限らない

1. 解答時に英英辞典の使用が許されます（但し、日本語の記載のない英英辞典に限定されます）
2. 試験時間は1級レベルが6時間10分（1時限目3時間、2時限目3時間10分）一般初級と中級は4時間10分（1時限目2時間、2時限目は2時間10分）と十分に試験時間はありますので、その場でゆっくりと問題に取り組む事が出来ます
3. オックスフォード大学英検は、英英辞典を使っての試験でもおわかりのように、今までの試験のように何かを暗記していなければできない試験ではありません。　切、暗記する必要はなく、要は英語を母国語とする人間にどこまで英語で、自分の意志を伝える事が出来るかという点が大切な点となります。
4. オックスフォード大学英検は、世界統一試験ですので、世界30ヶ国で同時に行なわれ、採点の基準も、それゆえ、世界中の答案を採点し、その中でどのレベルかを判定してくれます。
   今までの日本だけを基準とする英語検定試験ではありません。
5. 採点はオックスフォード大学認定の教師が各人の答案に2名が採点を行い、それぞれのレベル認定を最終段階でシニア試験官が判定を下します。
6. オックスフォード大学より資格認定合格証が発行され、世界的に英語教育の権威により認められることになります。
7. 試験問題は多くの資料やデータを読みこなし、その設問に解答する方式で、その資料やデータは実際目にする資料が多く、問題は作り出したものではありません。
8. 高校生から一般社会人までを対象としており、高校生にはPRELIMINARYのJUNIORレベルを、大学生・社会人にはPRELIMINARYかHIGHERレベルを選ぶことができます。
9. 解答はボールペンか万年筆に限られます。（但し、メモ用紙は別に配布されます。）

SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING ERRORS THEIR TYPES, CAUSES, AND TREATMENT

Hanna Y. Touchie

Abstract

Recent research in applied linguistics emphasizes the significance of learners' errors in second language learning. In this article, major types of errors in second language learning are first briefly mentioned. This is followed by tracing the sources of second language learning errors to both interlingual and intralingual or developmental factors. While interlingual errors are caused mainly by mother tongue interference, intralingual or developmental errors originate in the following factors: simplification, overgeneralization, hypercorrection, faulty teaching, fossilization, avoidance, inadequate learning, and false concepts hypothesized. The article concludes with some general guidelines for teachers in correcting errors in second language learning.

Language learning, like any kind of human learning, involves committing errors. In the past, language teachers considered errors committed by their students as something undesirable which they diligently sought to prevent from occurring. During the past fifteen years, however, researchers in the field of applied linguistics came to view errors as evidence for a creative process in language learning in which learners employ hypothesis testing and various strategies in learning a second

Dr Hanna Touchie received his Ph.D. from the University of Texas at Austin. He is now Assistant Professor of Linguistics and ESL at the An-Najah National University, Nablus in the West Bank, via Israel. He was a presenter at JALT '85.

language.

Far from being a nuisance to be eradicated, errors are, as Selinker (1969) indicates, significant in three respects: (1) errors are important for the language teacher because they indicate the learner's progress in language learning; (2) errors are also important for the language researcher as they provide insights into how language is learnt; and (3) finally, errors are significant to the language learner himself/herself as he/she gets involved in hypothesis testing.

In this article, I am going to discuss briefly the types of errors made by second language learners, the causes of these errors, and finally how teachers should correct them.

Types of Errors

Researchers in the field of applied linguistics usually distinguish between two types of errors: performance errors and competence errors. Performance errors are those errors made by learners when they are tired or hurried. Normally, this type of error is not serious and can be overcome with little effort by the learner. Competence errors, on the other hand, are more serious than performance errors since competence errors reflect inadequate learning. In this connection, it is important to note that researchers (cf. Gefen 1979) distinguish between *mistakes* which are lapses in performance and *errors* which reflect inadequate competence.

Other researchers (cf. Burt and Kiparsky 1974) distinguish between *local* and *global* errors. Local errors do not hinder communication and understanding the meaning of an utterance. Global errors, on the other hand, are more serious than local errors because global errors interfere with communication and disrupt the meaning of utterances. Local errors involve noun and verb inflections, and the use of articles, prepositions, and auxiliaries. Global errors, for example, involve wrong word order in a sentence.

Finally, language learning errors involve all language com-

ponents: the phonological, the morphological, the lexical, and the syntactic. An example of a phonological error is the lack of distinction between the phoneme /p/ and the phoneme /b/ among Arab ESL learners; so we hear them saying *pird* and *brison*, for example, instead of *bird* and *prison*. An example of a morphological error is the production of such errors as *womans*, *sheeps*, and *furnitures*. A lexical error involves inappropriate direct translation from the learner's native language or the use of wrong lexical items in the second language. Examples of lexical errors are: This is the *home* that my father built, and The *clock* is now ten. Finally, examples of syntactic errors are errors in word order, subject-verb agreement, and the use of the resumptive pronoun in English relative clauses produced by Arab ESL learners as illustrated in: The boy that I saw *him* is called Ali.

Causes of Errors

There are mainly two major sources of errors in second language learning. The first source is interference from the native language while the second source can be attributed to intralingual and developmental factors.

The native language of learners plays a significant role in learning a second language. Errors due to the influence of the native language are called interlingual errors. Interlingual errors are also called transfer or interference errors. The view that the native language plays a mostly negative role was emphasized as early as the forties and the fifties by Fries (1945) and Lado (1957). Although recently researchers tend to minimize interlingual errors and emphasize intralingual and developmental errors (cf. Dulay and Burt 1974), negative transfer or interference is still acknowledged as an important factor in second language learning (cf. Jordens 1977; Kellerman 1979; Touchie 1983).

Intralingual and developmental errors are due to the difficulty of the second/target language. Intralingual and developmental factors include the following:

1. **Simplification**: Learners often choose simple forms and constructions instead of more complex ones. An example of simplification might involve the use of simple present instead of the present perfect continuous.
2. **Overgeneralization**: This is the use of one form or construction in one context and extending its application to other contexts where it should not apply. Examples of overgeneralization include the use of *comed* and *goed* as the past tense forms of *come* and *go* and the omission of the third person singular *s* under the heavy pressure of all other endless forms as in *he go*.

   It should be noted that simplification and overgeneralization are used by learners in order to reduce their linguistic burden.
3. **Hypercorrection**: Sometimes the zealous efforts of teachers in correcting their students' errors induce the students to make errors in otherwise correct forms. Stenson (1978) calls this type of error "induced errors." For example, the teacher's insistence that Arab ESL learners produce the phoneme /p/ correctly prompts them to always produce /p/ where the phoneme /b/ is required. Thus Arab ESL learners say *pird* and *pattle* instead of *bird* and *battle*.
4. **Faulty teaching**: Sometimes it happens that learners' errors are teacher-induced ones, i.e., caused by the teacher, teaching materials, or the order of presentation. This factor is closely related to hypercorrection above. Also, it is interesting to note that some teachers are even influenced by their pupils' errors in the course of long teaching.
5. **Fossilization**: Some errors, specially errors in pronunciation, persist for long periods and become quite difficult to get rid of. Examples of fossilized errors in Arab ESL learners are the lack of distinction between /p/ and /b/ in English and the insertion of the resumptive pronoun in English relative clauses produced by these learners.
6. **Avoidance**: Some syntactic structures are difficult to produce by some learners. Consequently, these learners

avoid these structures and use instead simpler structures. Arab ESL learners avoid the passive voice while Japanese learners avoid relativization in English.

7. **Inadequate learning**: This is mainly caused by ignorance of rule restrictions or underdifferentiation and incomplete learning. An example is omission of the third person singular *s* as in: *He want*.
8. **False concepts hypothesized**: Many learners' errors can be attributed to wrong hypotheses formed by these learners about the target language. For example, some learners think that *is* is the marker of the present tense. So, they produce: *He is talk to the teacher*. Similarly, they think that *was* is the past tense marker. Hence they say: *It was happened last night*.

Error Treatment

Teachers cannot and should not correct all errors committed by their students. Besides, the frequent correction of oral errors disrupts the process of language learning and discourages shy students from communicating in the target language. The following are general guidelines in correcting second language learning errors:

1. Teachers should correct errors affecting intelligibility, i.e., errors that interfere with the general meaning and understandability of utterances. In this connection, teachers should concentrate on correcting global errors more than local errors.
2. High frequency and generality errors should be corrected more often than less frequent errors. For example, the omission of the third person singular *s* is an error of high frequency and generality.
3. Teachers should put more emphasis on correcting errors affecting a large percentage of their students. This factor is clearly related to the second factor above.
4. Stigmatizing or irritating errors should be paid more attention to. This factor is related to the socioliguistic aspect of

language learning. Pupils who come from lower socioeconomic classes are conscious of and very sensitive to ridicule about their informal variety of language from students from higher socioeconomic classes who speak a more formal and prestigious variety of the language.

5. Finally, errors relevant to a pedagogical focus should receive more attention from the teacher than other errors. For example, if the focus of the lesson is the use of the present perfect tense, the correction of errors involving prepositions, articles, and demonstratives in this lesson should not be emphasized by the teacher because if he/she did, the attention of the students would be distracted from the focus of the lesson which, in this instance, is the use of the present perfect tense.

References

Burt, M., & Kiparsky, C. 1978. Global and local mistakes, in J. Schumann & N. Stenson (Eds.). *New frontiers in second language learning*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishing, Inc.

Duly, H., & Burt, M. 1974. Natural sequences in child second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 24*, 23-40.

Fries, C. (1945). *Teaching and learning English as a foreign language*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Gefen, R. 1979. The analysis of pupils' errors. *English Teachers' Journal, 22*, 16-24.

Jordens, P. 1977. Rules, grammatical intuitions, and strategies in foreign language learning. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin, 2*, 5-76.

Kellerman, E. 1979. Transfer and non-transfer: Where we are now. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 2*, 37-57.

Lado, R. 1957. *Linguistics across cultures*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Selinker, L. 1969. Interlanguage, *IRAL, 3*, 114-132.

Stenson, N. 1978. Induced Errors. In J. Schumann & N. Stenson, (Eds.), *New frontiers in second language learning*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishing, Inc.

Touchie, H. 1983. *Transfer and related strategies in the acquisition of English relative clauses by adult Arab learners*. Unpublished doctoral dessertation, The University of Texas at Austin.

NOW AVAILABLE

BASIC IDIOMS IN AMERICAN ENGLISH

アメリカ英語基礎イディオム集

by Hubert H. Setzler,Jr. and T.Matsui

"... a graded, topical approach to learning essential idioms in English, for supplementary use in all English courses in secondary schools, colleges, and adult classes."

TEXTBOOK	Book 1 (100 idioms)	¥650
	Book 2 (250 idioms)	¥700
	Book 3 (250 idioms)	¥750
	Combined Edition	¥1,350
NEW CASSETTE	Book 1 (C-60)	¥2,900
	Book 2 (C-90)	¥3,500
NEW	Book 3 (C-90)	¥3,500
PACKED SET (Textbook + Cassette + Answer Sheet)		
	Book 1	¥3,700
	Book 2	¥4,400
	Book 3	¥4,500

ラドー博士の最新アメリカ英語読本　異文化体験的アプローチ

ENGLISH ACROSS CULTURES

by Robert Lado and Linju Ogasawara

"... an enlightened, eclectic combination of the best of known techniques in language learning adapted to meet the needs of the Japanese students."

TEXTBOOK	Book 1	¥980
	Book 2	¥1,300
	Book 3	¥1,400

Best Selling Titles !

CONVERSATION IN ENGLISH :
Points of Departures, 2nd Edition ¥1,170

CONVERSATION IN ENGLISH :
Professional Careers ¥1,170

TOPPAN COMPANY, LTD.
2F Shufunotomo Bldg., 1-6 Kanda Surugadai
Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 101　☎ 03(295)3461

ale

Make their English REAL !!!

Motivate your students with opportunities to use their English outside the classroom !!!

PUT LIFE INTO THEIR ENGLISH and ENGLISH INTO THEIR LIVES with an ACTUAL LIVING ENGLISH SEMINAR

ALE seminars are guided activities which integrate English into vacation-like events. We offer 23 low-priced seminars each year: 11 overseas, and 12 within Japan. In addition, ALE conducts free weekend support activities twice each month in ten cities throughout Japan. ALE programs are adjusted to the level, interest and need of each group: everything from casual to intensive courses, from parties and excursions to weekend and weeks-long travel--plus just about anything that's fun, safe, and legal. **ALE seminars are an excellent way to build greater rapport among your students, to reinforce their English, and to refresh their motivation to learn.** This results in a livelier classroom, more to talk about, and lower student turnover... plus travel and profit for you*.

HAWAII -- ALASKA -- USA MAINLAND -- EUROPE -- HONG KONG -- SAIPAN -- GUAM -- AUSTRALIA -- NEW ZEALAND -- BALI -- FIJI -- ALL OVER JAPAN, and more.

Prices include airfare, first-class hotels and inns, English activities & instruction, sightseeing tour, welcome party, full-time native English speaker staff, n.s. teachers (this could be you), local guides, tour insurance and, on Japan seminars, free or discount use of sports facilities.

A few of our Overseas and Domestic Seminars for 1987

Hong Kong (4 days) ¥49,000	**Zao** (3 days) Skiing, snow play ¥9,900
USA West Coast (7days) ¥199,000	**Little America** (3-10 days) from ¥5,000
Hawaii (Waikiki) (7 days) ¥89,000	**Suzuka** (3 days) driving/racing ¥15,000

***If you want to know more, call or write to: Guy Cihi, Vice President, International Resources, Ichigaya Sumitomo Bldg. 10F**
1-1 Ichigaya Honmura-cho, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 162 Tel: (03) 235-0495

International Resources... for 12 years, the leader in English language seminars.

RESPONSE STYLES OF JAPANESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS

Frances Horler and Junichi Yamazaki

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the responses of Japanese and American college students on a Likert-type rating scale to ascertain whether cultural differences might be reflected in the frequency of extreme responses (*Strongly Agree* and *Strongly Disagree*) and *Undecided* responses. If cultural differences are reflected, researchers must be sensitive to these differences in constructing instruments and interpreting results in cross cultural studies.

Although the total percentage of extreme scores of Japanese was slightly less than for American students, Japanese men recorded slightly more extreme scores than did American men. A marked difference, however, is observed in the *direction* of response; Japanese males *Strongly Agree* twice as frequently as American males, and conversely American males *Strongly Disagree* more frequently. Japanese females *Strongly Agree* more frequently than American females; American females *Strongly Disagree* twice as frequently as Japanese females. Japanese men and women recorded

Frances Horler, Ph.D., University of Chicago, Professor Emeritus, Graduate School of Education and Human Development, The University of Rochester (N.Y.), is Director of English Studies at the Kobe YMCA College.

Junichi Yamazaki, a graduate of Kwansai Gakuin University, holds the M.A. in TESL from The State University of New York, Albany. He is on the Faculty of the English Department at Himeji Gakuin Women's College.

approximately twice as many *Undecided* responses as did their American counterparts.

Cross cultural studies have indicated that culture may have a differential effect upon style of response to rating scales. Zax and Takahashi (1967), examining the ratings of Rorschach inkblots on Semantic Differential scales made by Japanese and American college students, found that Japanese students made significantly more neutral responses and fewer extreme responses than did American students. The results were attributed to differences in child-rearing practices in the two cultures, particularly to the greater emphasis placed on restraint in the Japanese culture.

Using *The School Environment Preference Schedule* (SEPS), Gordon and Kikuchi (1970) analyzed the response set of twelfth grade American and Japanese students. They found that Japanese students made approximately twice as many *Undecided* responses as did American students. In contrast to the findings of Zax and Takahashi, they found no statistically significant differences in the frequency of extreme scores – *Strongly Agree* and *Strongly Disagree*.

Characteristics of the two cultures suggest that differences might be reflected in response to questions of opinion. Japanese, in contrast to Americans, are reluctant to express personal opinions. Their views are softened and often communicated implicitly rather than explicitly. This reluctance is attributed to a sensitivity to the feelings of others and a strong desire for harmony and group consensus. Reactions to questions of personal opinions which involve *yes/no* answers differ in the two cultures. Japanese tend to find such questions embarrassing and difficult to answer.

> They feel cornered by being forced into making sharp distinctions between "yes" and "no" when their customary and preferred method of answering questions and communicating opinions is to blur the edges of their possibly differing opinion so that it can be harmonized with the opinions of others. (Naotsuka 1980, p. 131)

The ability to express thoughts clearly, directly, and logically, so much admired in the western world, conflicts with the Japanese understanding of courtesy. Characteristic ambiguities of the Japanese language foster the hazy, indefinite expression. From time immemorial generations of Japanese have developed to a fine art the practice of "beating around the bush" in order to avoid open conflict and hurting the feelings of others. And what is left unsaid – the silence – is as important as what is said. "Mere tabulations of responses to a public opinion poll in Japan, therefore, do not reflect what people are really thinking" (Kato 1959, p. 32).

Purpose

The questions of the present study are: Do Japanese and American college students differ in response set on Likert-type scales in respect to the frequency of extreme scores, *Strongly Agree – Strongly Disagree*, and of *Undecided* scores? And if differences exist, do these reflect cultural patterns?

Method

The data analyzed were collected for a comparative study of work attitudes. The *Work Opinion Schedule*, consisting of 43 items to be rated on a five-point scale, was administered to two-year college students in Rochester, New York (M 26, F 28) and in Kobe, Japan (M 25, F 25). The parallel Japanese version of the instrument was checked by back translation and examined for comparable constructs by bilingual Japanese and Americans. The *Schedule* was made up of such items as the following:

Administrative and supervisory positions are best held by men.

In a good job, prestige is more important than salary.

It is better to work for a large corporation than for a small one.

The percentage of responses in each of the scoring categories is presented in the following table.

	Sex	SA	A	U	D	SD	SA+SD
Japan	M	12.8	25.0	32.6	20.8	8.7	21.5
	F	8.7	26.6	31.3	25.1	8.4	17.1
	M+F	10.7	25.8	31.9	23.0	8.6	19.3
USA	M	6.4	29.3	15.9	36.0	12.3	18.7
	F	7.0	25.8	17.4	32.9	16.9	23.9
	M+F	6.7	27.5	16.7	34.4	14.7	21.4

Table 1

Percent of Responses in Each Scoring Category
For Japanese and American Students

Results

The total percentage of extreme responses (SA + SD) of the Japanese subjects (19.3%) is slightly smaller than that of the American subjects (21.4%). Contrary to expectations, Japanese males made a greater percentage of extreme responses (21.5%) than did American males (18.7%). A difference in direction, however, is to be noted; Japanese males *Strongly Agree* (12.8%) twice as frequently as American males (6.4%), but American males *Strongly Disagree* (12.3%) more frequently than Japanese males (8.7%).

The percentage of extreme responses of Japanese females (17.1%) is smaller than that of American females (23.9%). Although the difference in *Strongly Agree* responses is not large (J 8.7%; USA 7.0%), American women recorded twice as many *Strongly Disagree* responses as did the Japanese women (J 8.4%; USA 16.9%). For each of the sexes the Japanese subjects chose approximately twice as many *Undecided* responses as did the American subjects.

Discussion

Results indicate that Japanese and American students do not differ markedly in the *total* percentage of extreme responses (19.3% and 21.4% respectively). This finding is consonant with that of Gordon and Kikuchi (1970:146), who, using a similar Likert-type scale as the stimulus, concluded that "the extremeness response set is clearly identifiable in the Japanese culture." In the present study American women recorded extreme responses more frequently than did Japanese women (23.9% and 17.1% respectively). This is contrary to the findings of Gordon and Kikuchi, who state, "The tendency to use extreme alternatives 'SA' or 'SD' . . . is found to be equally strong in both cultures" (1970, p. 146).

Zax and Takahashi, on the other hand, using Rorschach inkblots as the stimulus, found that Japanese made fewer extreme responses than did American subjects, the difference between Japanese and American females being statistically significant ($p < .05$).

For each sex Japanese students recorded approximately twice as many *Undecided* responses as did American students. These findings are in agreement with those of Gordon and Kikuchi and of Zax and Takahashi.

Studies have shown that American subjects score higher than Japanese on measures of *Decisiveness* defined as the value placed on taking definite positions on issues (Gordon and Kikuchi, 1970:146). It would therefore be expected that on Likert-type scales Japanese would register more *Undecided* responses, a conjecture supported by research.

Although Japanese are reluctant to express personal opinions directly and forcefully and prefer the muted response, they are not so hesitant about responding to questions of fact. It may be possible that some items on the *Work Opinion Schedule* reflect viewpoints so fundamentally a part of the Japanese culture and so almost universally accepted that they were considered to be questions of fact rather than of opinion.

For example, "The rules and regulations of your institution should be followed exactly" was recorded as *Strongly Agree* by 60% of the Japanese males and by 11.5% of American males. Further studies using various types of stimuli and items are needed to clarify further cultural differences in response set.

How stable are the response styles of Japanese subjects? It has been suggested that the increasing contact with the western world will modify the Japanese response set so as to resemble more closely that of American subjects. Enormous cultural changes have taken place in both nations over the past several decades. But the Japanese preference for the vague and indefinite statement, certain ambiguities of the Japanese language, and the avoidance of adversarial positions have been for centuries such an integral part of the culture as to be highly resistant to change. Only periodic follow-up studies will provide an answer.

The evidence that cross cultural differences exist in response set to rating scales has implications for researchers in designing instruments and in interpreting results. Thus, inferences on cultural differences and similarities ought to reflect differences in the *content* of the item being measured and not the response set.

The present study is meant to be heuristic in nature -- to raise questions rather than to provide definitive answers - and thus to suggest areas for further research.

References

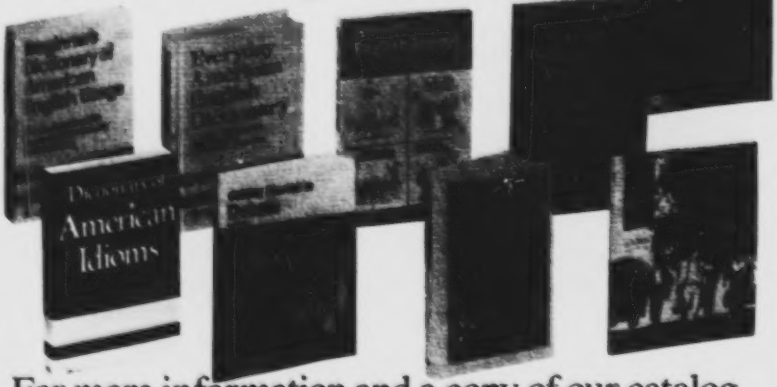
Gordon, L. V., and Kikuchi, A. 1970. Response sets of Japanese and American students. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *82*, 143-148.

Kato, H. (Ed.). 1959. *Japanese Popular Culture*. Rutland, Vermont: Charles E. Tuttle Co.

Naotsuka, R. 1980. Mutual Understanding of Different Cultures. Osaka: Educational Science Institute of Osaka Prefecture.

Zax, M., and Takahashi, S. 1967. Cultural influences on response style: Comparisons of Japanese and American college students. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *71*, 3-10.

National Textbook Company
is pleased to announce
the appointment of
Filmscan/Lingual House
as its representative in Japan
for the promotion and sales
of its English Language Teaching
and Debate Educational Materials



For more information and a copy of our catalog
please contact Mr. Shinsuke Suzuki at Filmscan.

National Textbook Company
4255 West Touhy Avenue
Lincolnwood (Chicago) IL
60646-1975 U.S.A.
Telex: TWX 910 223 0736
(PATGROUP LCWD)
Phone: 312-679-5500

Filmscan/Lingual House
Dorumi-Yoyogi #1107
1-57-2 Yoyogi
Shibuya-ku Tokyo 151
03 (320) 4170

EXPERIENCE YOU CAN DEPEND ON BAKER & TAYLOR
a GRACE company

Services for every need.

Our services for academic libraries include:

- *Firm Order Service* — Larger inventory means better order fulfillment and savings.
- *Approval Program* — Raise your collection development standards to a new level of efficiency.
- *Continuation Service* — Achieve a more efficient standing order acquisitions program.
- *University Press Programs* — Acquire university press titles on a firm order or approval program basis.
- *Bibliographical Announcements* — Learn about newly published titles.
- *Electronic Ordering System* — Flexible technology to match your library's unique requirements.

- 複雑な洋書流通経路をとらず，出版社→取次→図書館を一本につなぎます。
- 当日の銀行為替レートに２割の手数料(送料含む)をプラスしてお売りいたします。たとえば，当日の為替レートが１ドル154円とすると，10ドルの本は1,850円となります。(10円未満は５捨６入)
- アメリカより航空便でお送りいたしますので，はやくお届けすることができます。はやいもので２～３週間，おそくとも５～６週間でお手元に届きます。
- BAKER & TAYLOR では常時2,000万冊の在庫を持ち，アメリカ，イギリス，およびヨーロッパ諸国の16,000の出版社と取引しております。

Put Baker & Taylor's professionals to work for your library.

With an unsurpassed inventory and a vast array of time-saving and cost-cutting services, it pays to use Baker & Taylor. For more information about what our services can do for your library, contact the sales department of the Baker & Taylor division nearest you.

グレースジャパン株式会社 ベーカー＆テーラー事業部
営業部長　市川　温
〒106 東京都港区麻布台1-4-3 フェニックスビル3F TEL(03)505-5841 FAX(03)505-5850

COMPUTERS, LANGUAGE LEARNING AND LANGUAGE TEACHING. Kurshid Ahmad, Greville Corbett, Margaret Rogers and Roland Sussex. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1985. 158 pp. UK 4.95

Few educational institutions have bothered to initiate their teaching staff into new technology. When the budget was there the machines were bought and the odd enthusiast did what he could with them. The book under review sets out to correct this situation by introducing computers to the language teacher in an easy manner.

The 141 pages of text are carefully divided into sections and subsections with a conclusion at the end of each chapter. The authors prefer to use the acronym CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) to the somewhat more common CAI (Computer Assisted Instruction) because they believe it is the learning rather than instruction that ought to be emphasized. The book delineates both the good and the bad about the use of computers, an important feature since there is a danger of both writer and reader ignoring the demerits of a subject once they delve into it.

There are eight chapters in the book. Some are of basic importance to the subject while others are simply meant to add information. The Introduction and second chapter explain the rudiments of the subject and are essential. Chapters Four, Six, and Seven, which carry the discussion somewhat further to conduct a more detailed examination of the issues ought to be read as well. Chapter Three deals with the history of computers in the classroom and Chapter Five provides a detailed example of a CALL program. Chapter Eight is a general conclusion which lets the reader have a glimpse of what the near future might harbor for the CALL enthusiast.

The Preface tells us what readers the authors have in mind,

". . .language teachers at all levels. . .assumes no knowledge of computers and computing" (p. vii). At the beginning of the Introduction we are told that the computer is "a tool, of itself incapable of action" (p. 2). We are also told what it can do. For example, "it can conduct a two way learning session with the student" (p. 4). It can also "be made sensitive to the learner's pace, pattern of response" (p. 5). Since the computer gives its full attention to each individual user, the student sitting at the keyboard works the hour to the full and no time is wasted during low attention periods while the teacher is dealing with other learners.

The disadvantages of the computer are then considered. Among these we learn that "computer programs are seldom portable" (p. 7), which means that one must possess the same machine (in some cases not only the same make but the same model as well) and the teacher must therefore be very careful indeed when selecting hardware. Also, the authors tell us that "the material which can be handled by a computer represents at best a tiny part fraction of the knowledge which a teacher brings to bear in a language class" (p. 7).

Chapter Two introduces computers and programs. There is a detailed explanation of all the different pieces in the puzzle, their names and acronyms, and how they all fit together. The reader learns about the micro, the mini and the CPU (Central Processing Unit), the last two of which require a VDU (Video Display Unit). The section on programs introduces the reader to computer languages with a short example of BASIC.

Chapter Four, "The Learner, Language, and the Computer," deals, especially in the first three sections, with the practical aspects of using computers in the classroom. It provides the various aspects of the environment and of the programs. We are told that, "there must be adequate room for the students to put books and writing materials next to the terminals. . .the keyboard must be large enough. . .the screen, too, must be large enough" (p. 46). Then there follows a subsection on

ways of using the software. Clear instructions, easy access, easy exit are all important, and, when designing a CALL package, one of the factors to be considered is the amount of typing required from the learner.

Chapter Six goes into the details of the programming languages. Reading it will enable the teacher to judge what the programs he wishes to employ can and ought to do.

Chapter Seven defines the scope of the computer. The authors begin by admitting that experiences in which "education technologies have often been presented as easy solutions to large scale problems" (p. 101) have caused many teachers to distrust new technology. Their aim is, therefore to define exactly the roles in which the computer can be of use. Section 7.2, Areas of Language Teaching Suited for CALL, deals with limiting factors as well as suitable activities. The section explains that the computer cannot understand the natural language of the student. The learner can reply and the computer will interpret that reply only in the form of a carefully constructed program. We then have some information on direct applications with examples from gap filling and cloze exercises.

Section 7.3 deals with the important subject of monitoring. Here the computer really comes into its own since it eliminates the need for the teacher to mark each student separately. With a balanced, critical view the authors refuse to praise the method they recommend. Rather, they state, "the educational effectiveness of CALL is still a controversial issue. We can now see more clearly what kind of language learning tasks can be handled by the computer. But the nature and extent of the computer's qualitative contribution to the language learning process is not clear" (p. 120).

Chapter Three deals with the history of computers and CALL. It introduces many of the earlier innovative programs such as the PLATO system at the University of Illinois and the University of Essex program. It also describes one of the fields in which language teachers of the human sort can still

feel they have got the upper hand, although for how long it is not clear: that of machine translation.

Chapter Five introduces GERAD, a program for learners of German. Two of the authors have produced this program and are using it as an example to show how a computer can help the learner overcome some simple problems inherent in the language taught.

Chapter Eight deals with developing areas. It treats such subjects as speech input/output and videodisks. It is useful since any teacher considering the installation of a CALL system can already take into account most of these developments and make provisions for their inclusion at a later stage.

The book deals with the subject in a straightforward and clear manner. It leads the uninitiated through all the stages necessary for a basic but sound knowledge of the subject.

Although there is some digression which may prove to be beyond the beginner, such as the detailed explanation of computer languages in pages 23-24, it is on the whole concise and lucid. The division and subdivision of each chapter make it easy for the reader to revise whatever he feels would benefit him most. The book also contains a useful list of addresses (p. 144) as well as a substantial bibliography, which is referred to extensively throughout the text.

The book introduces a great many terms. The interested reader can refer back to these terms by using the index. It would, however, have been useful if a glossary could have been provided.

In Chapter Four the authors deal with what they refer to as "the three main factors in CALL" (p. 45). These are, "Learner, Language, Computer." Since the readers of this book are bound to be teachers, to whom indeed the book is dedicated (p. vii), some might take offense at not being considered to be a "main factor."

Finally, upon reading subsection 7.2.2, the same teachers may also feel that there is not enough to CALL since there are not very many Straightforward Applications provided. This is

a subsection the authors could have easily expanded.

None of these relatively minor points, however, reduce the readability and importance of the book reviewed.

Reuben Gerling
Technological University of Nagaoka
Nagaoka, Niigata 949-54

CROSSCULTURAL UNDERSTANDING: PROCESSES AND APPROACHES FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE, ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE, AND BILINGUAL EDUCATORS. Gail L. Nemetz Robinson. New York: Pergamon Press, 1985. 133pp.

This book is "a collection of theoretical essays on the topic of developing crosscultural understanding" (p. 6). Understanding, in the author's view, "refers to empathizing or feeling comfortable with another person"; consequently, the central question Robinson seeks to answer is "What experiences may theoretically help members of one culture positively relate to, respond to, and interact with members of a different culture?" (p. 1).

From a set of theoretical premises (discussed below), Robinson offers several implications for the implementation of crosscultural training in ESL, FL, and bilingual programs. For example, following her treatment of how culture and cultural roles are acquired (Ch. 4), she suggests the following implications:

1) support experiential, multi-modal instruction at all levels. . .
2) avoid discrete-item instruction, within and across exercises, both linguistic and cultural. . .
3) encourage subjectivity that is related to the subject matter. Elicit a synthesis between the learner's home cultural experience and the new. . .
4) consider the ages at which particular goals are most easily fulfilled. Adolescence may be the most efficient time to promote learner identification with culturally diverse groups (p. 48).

Then, she discusses the question, "How do cultural learnings affect the perception of other people?" (Ch. 5), and concludes with these implications for language programs:

1) Provide knowledge of target cultural cues, schemas, meaning systems, and the correct inferences that may be

drawn from particular cues.

2) Insure that a positive first impression is made.
3) Focus on similarities.
4) Counter negative evaluations such as low status, powerlessness, exclusion, by making each student's skills/participation necessary for others.
5) Lessen attribution errors by focusing on background and situational factors underlying behaviors, and have learners empathize with members of the target culture by making analogies to their own experience and through the stimulation of feelings.
6) People project their feelings of self onto the evaluation of others. Avoid embarrassment in the second and foreign language classrooms, threat by mainstream students in bilingual classrooms, and powerlessness of bilingual students in classrooms.
7) Treat all parties involved in interaction – not just cultural or language minorities (p. 72).

Readers more concerned with applications than theory will also want to pay particular attention to the book's appendix, "A case study of an ethnographic interview." This study presents not only a good example of ethnographic methodology but also some very interesting contrasts between the Indian and U.S. cultures.

For the most part, however, the book is concerned with theoretical issues of culture transmission and crosscultural understanding, and it is this aspect of the book that I would now like to discuss.

Robinson's approach is avowedly (and commendably) interdisciplinary, drawing from anthropology (especially ethnography), social learning theory, perceptual and cognitive psychology, and sociolinguistics. Her epistemological foundation is Marxist and what I would call semiotic, though she makes no specific reference to the latter term or any of the literature of that school.

Robinson's major premises are that

1) cultural experiences affect perception and learning;
2) culture is transmitted and acquired
   a) through all perceptual modes,
   b) within an integrated context,
   c) gradually, through repeated exposures, and
   d) as the result of a dialectic process;
3) The teaching of culture should
   a) strive to develop positive affiliation between members of different cultural groups and
   b) focus on crosscultural similarities rather than differences.

In Robinson's opinion, perception and learning are affected by four types of cultural experience:

1. availability of particular *content* or stimuli which affects familiarity on the part of culture members,
2. *organization* of the stimuli,
3. most available or culturally familiar *mode of stimulus input*, (and)
4. most familiar *mode of response* elicited (p. 15).

It is a mistake, she argues, to present the target language only in the context of the target culture. Of course, new cultural concepts must be taught along with the target language, but, "The solution is neither a methodology based exclusively on the learner's home culture nor one based exclusively on the new cultural context, as is prevalent with most bilingual, foreign language and second language textbooks." Rather. . .

> a more effective methodology would build a bridge between the old and the new by providing culturally familiar content as a point of departure for introducing culturally unfamiliar content at every level of instruction. Jumping right into the content and context which is foreign to the learner would be less effective (p. 17).

While this argument has some intuitive appeal, it is not empirically supported, and, if extended to its logical conclu-

sion, it would lead to a rejection of all total immersion programs. Robinson's only "proof" for her claim comes from a study of "how African children of Tiv classified and reclassified objects" (p. 16). The study (Price-Williams 1980) showed that the Tiv children grouped and regrouped objects according to culturally established norms. This finding, however, does not lead *ipso facto* to the conclusion that children (or adults) can or should learn new cultural concepts through reference to culturally familiar content. An alternative hypothesis would be that *some* individuals learn *some* new cultural concepts best from a base of culturally familiar concepts, while *others* learn best by total immersion in the target culture – and that the preference for and effectiveness of each approach is influenced by individual and cultural factors (e.g., flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, previous cross-cultural experience, analytic versus holistic perspective) as well as the time frame and context in which the culture learning takes place.

We should also not reject total immersion programs just because they introduce the learner to a high degree of unfamiliar content. It is precisely this factor – and the motivation to overcome the resulting stress – that makes a total immersion approach effective for some learners (Cf. Grove and Torbiörn 1985). In other words, Robinson's appeal for teaching the target culture from a base of culturally familiar content is probably valid for some learners some of the time, but there is not yet enough evidence to accept this notion as a universal principle of cross-cultural education.

Robinson's second major premise, after the claim that cultural experiences affect perception and learning, relates to how culture is transmitted and acquired. All people, she claims, "perceive and organize new experience based on their own experience (which is part shared or cultural, and part individual or idiosyncratic)" (p. 17). As an example, she cites the Western preference (or bias) for individual achievement, analytical ability, and objectivity versus the eastern tradition

of encouraging collective effort, intuition, and subjectivity. The fundamental point here is that

> Rather than labeling students, we can diversify the organization of our instruction so as to promote the development of dual perceptual styles and patterns of organization. In other words, educators can structure tasks to develop cultural versatility within students (p. 22).

Related to this point is the recognition that some individuals learn best in one sensory mode while others learn best in another sensory mode. Multi-modal instruction not only provides the learner an option but also carries with it the opportunity for cross-modal and contextual reinforcement.

Robinson argues for her second major premise from both psychological evidence and philosophical foundations. She cites a "voluminous psychological literature which supports the idea that the perception and organization of new information is influenced by previous experience" (p. 17). In particular, she notes the work of Witkin *et al.* (1962) and others on field dependence (or field sensitivity) and field independence. Since these concepts are obviously derived from Gestalt theory, it is somewhat surprising that Robinson makes no direct reference to that school. Also conspicuously absent from her discussion are references to recent work on right brain/left brain functions, holistic learning, and neurolinguistic programming.

The philosophical basis for her premise comes from the Hegelian dialectic and Marx's interpretation of cultural change as a "socio-historical, dialectic process in which the new product (i.e., change) is the result of a synthesis between the old and the new" (p. 44). While Robinson concedes that "This idea of acquisition and change as a dialectic process. . .is not new to the literature in psychology, anthropology or education," she contends, rightly so, that "the implications have not been widely applied to student responses to culture learning in second language, foreign language, and bilingual pro-

grams" (p. 45). As an example of such a dialectic approach, she cites a class for Japanese university students on the use of American measurements. Students wrote recipes for Japanese dishes using American measurements.

Certainly, dialectic theory can contribute much to our understanding of culture learning and change, but one must be careful not to oversimplify the process. The synthesis which results from the interaction of thesis and antithesis is not always a 50-50 mixture, nor is it static. Rather, each synthesis interacts with other syntheses in dynamic temporal and contextual matrices. The challenge for the intercultural educator is to be able to gauge how much of a transition his or her students can make at a given time with given variables and to control those variables as much as possible to produce the desired outcomes.

Dialectic theory also fails to account for the apparent fact that some theses just do not synthesize. How else can we explain the fact that bilinguals often feel more comfortable discussing certain topics in one language and other topics in their other language? Also, the fact that they sense changes in personality when they switch languages argues against a completely dialectic theory of learning. Indeed, if learning were completely dialectic, there would be no bilingualism at all but only constantly shifting pidgins.

Robinson's third major premise is a two-part prescription for the ultimate goal and process of teaching culture. It is also the part of her approach which I find most debatable.

Many intercultural educators will no doubt find no reason to argue with Robinson's claim that "Developing crosscultural understanding involves perceiving members of different culture groups positively" (p. 49), but there is something about this goal that unsettles this reviewer. It is just too ambitious for me. If we can prepare students to enter a new culture with flexibility, a tolerance for ambiguity, and a suspension of judgements about right and wrong, better and worse, then I believe we have done our job. If students de-

velop positive attitudes toward the target culture, so much the better, but I am satisfied if they simply develop a neutral attitude.

Robinson makes a strong case for focusing on similarities rather than differences between source and target cultures, citing "numerous studies [showing] that perceived similarity influences liking" (p. 54). Indeed, Robinson's most significant contribution to the field of crosscultural education may be in reminding us not to overlook similarities between the source and target cultures. Still, something about this focus leaves me unsatisfied. Perhaps it is the recognition that when all the similarities are exhausted, the learner is still left with the differences, and it is the differences, which may be substantial, that make crosscultural interaction and understanding difficult. Or, maybe I am biased by the fact that those sojourners I have known who preach that "deep down all people are the same" have adjusted less well to different cultures than those who try to recognize the differences between cultures. I cling to Hall's (1959) canons that "Culture hides much more than it reveals. . ." and that "The best reason for exposing oneself to foreign ways is to generate a sense of vitality and awareness – an interest in life which can come only when one lives through the shock of contrast and difference" (p. 39).

Robinson, it seems, regards culture as a barrier which divides groups of people and which, therefore, must be circumvented. The alternative view, to which I subscribe, is that culture is a dynamic network of rules which defines groups of people and which, therefore, must be respected. The manner in which the reader will respond to Robinson's book will depend in large part on which of these two philosophies he or she inclines toward.

On more mundane matters, the book abounds in errors of spelling, grammar, punctuation and style. Here are just a few examples I spotted without even conscientiously looking for errors. On page 24, the name Bruner is misspelled. On page 32, we find misplaced clauses in "foods are eaten which

symbolize. . ." and "*matzoh* is eaten which symbolizes. . . ." On page 45, 'myself' is used as a subject pronoun. On page 57, 'homework' is misspelled. On page 60, there are two instances of faulty person agreement. On page 61, a description of an exercise contains the statement that "Partner B was not allowed to elaborate or question Partner B" (instead of Partner A). And so on.

In addition, there are lapses in documentation. On page 15, Robinson tells us that "More recent research shows that ecological conditions, level of technology, and related sociocultural institutions affect perception and subsequent language development rather than the reverse," but she does not tell us what that "recent research" is or where we can find it. Also, on page 29, she mentions the book *Intensive English Through Songs* (Robinson 1971) (by the same author?) but fails to include it in the bibliography.

With such errors, *Crosscultural Understanding* hardly seems like a book aimed at language teachers.

This is not a great book. It occasionally displays lapses of cohesion, polish, objectivity, and supporting documentation. Some readers will find some of its arguments unconvincing. Yet, it is an important book – partly because it attempts to address a subject seldom addressed to language teachers. It also contains many novel arguments and suggestions. Even the reader who does not accept many of the book's premises will find much stimulation and cause to re-examine his or her own philosophies and methods. I believe that all language teachers and crosscultural trainers should read *Crosscultural Understanding*, but I believe that they should read it critically and with an awareness of contrasting points of view.

Robert M. Ingram
Applied Materials Japan, K.K.

References

Grove, C. L. and I. Torbiörn. 1985. A new conceptualization of intercultural adjustment and the goals of training. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations 9*, 205-233.

Hall, E.T. 1959. *The silent language*. New York: Fawcett Premier.

Price-Williams, D. R. 1980. Cognition: Anthropological and psychological nexus. In G. D. Spindler (Ed.), *The making of psychological anthropology*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Witkin, H. A. *et al.* 1962. *Psychological differentiation*. New York: Wiley.

BBC BEGINNERS' ENGLISH

Judy Garton-Sprenger and Simon Greenall

- Full colour Student's Book - 30 teaching & revision units plus language review section
- Additional practice Workbook - particularly suitable for homework
- Detailed Teacher's Book explanation of methodology and further practice suggestions
- Class audiocassette - recorded material for the Student's Book
- Language Review Cassette - pronunciation and structure review exercises for classroom or language laboratory use

BBC English courses

A two-stage course designed to be used in the classroom by adults and college and high school students studying English as a foreign language. The course enables students to use English in a variety of practical and real-life situations.
The course aims to help learners to achieve a variety of educational objectives and to tackle a broad range of communicative tasks. The students' involvement in these aims is ensured by the following features :

☆Communication practice in social and professional contexts
☆Realistic activities and tasks
☆Exposure to national and international variations of English
☆A learner-centred approach
☆A balance between communicative activities, structure practice and grammar
☆Systematic skills development

ILS

INTERNATIONAL LEARNING SYSTEMS (JAPAN) LTD.
Matsuoka Central Bldg., 1-7-1 Nishishinjuku, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160
TEL (03) 344-3412 FAX (03) 344-3405

Osaka Office
Osaka Fukoku-Seimei Bldg. 4F, 2-4 Komatsubara-cho, Kita-ku, Osaka 530 TEL (06) 362-2961

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

The *JALT Journal* is now soliciting manuscripts for publication in future issues. The *JALT Journal* welcomes submission of articles which contribute to the field of foreign language teaching and learning in both the theoretical and practical domains, especially in the following areas: 1) curriculum, methods, and techniques; 2) classroom observation; 3) teacher education and teacher training; 4) cross-cultural studies; 5) language learning and acquisition; 6) overviews of research and practice in related fields.

In addition, the editors encourage submissions which examine issues of research and practice in the Japanese context, although articles of interest to an international audience are always appreciated. The editors also invite contributions of reviews and extended commentary on articles which have appeared in previous issues of the *JALT Journal*.

All manuscripts and inquiries should be directed to either Richard Berwick or Andrew Wright, *JALT Journal*, C.I. Mansion #505, Yamate-dori, 1-28, Showa-ku, Nagoya 466, Japan.

EDITORIAL POLICY

Manuscripts should be no longer than 30 pages, typed and double-spaced. The *JALT Journal* conforms to APA style and the following information may be considered a general guide. Reference citations should be placed in the body of the text in parentheses with the author's last name, date of the work cited, and (where appropriate) page numbers. Footnotes for substantive information should be kept to a minimum. Authors are responsible for complete and correct information in the reference list and block quotations.

Manuscripts are subject to blind review by two reviewers. The author's name and footnotes that identify the author

should appear on the cover sheet only.

Submit three copies of the manuscript, an abstract of less than 200 words, a running title of about 5 words, and a biographical sketch of less than 50 words. Please note that manuscripts will not be returned.

ADVERTISING

Inquiries about advertising should be directed to Thomas Robb, Department of Foreign Languages, Kyoto Sangyo University, Kamigamo Momoyama, Kita-ku, Kyoto 603.

Book Reviews: All reviews should be submitted to the JALT Book Review Editor, Jim Swan, Aoyama 8-122, Nara 603.

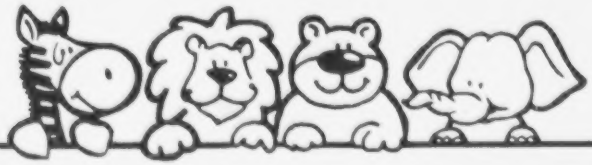
THE LANGUAGE TEACHER 第10巻 13号 特別増刊号
JALT JOURNAL 第8巻 第1号

昭和61年10月25日 印刷
昭和61年11月1日 発行

発行人 全国語学教育学会（JALT）事務局長
THOMAS N. ROBB

発行所 JALT本部
〒600 京都市下京区烏丸四条西入ル
住友生命ビル8階K.E.C.内
TEL （075）221－2376

印刷所 厚進社
〒530 大阪市北区天満2丁目13-3
TEL （06）351－8795



My English Book Series

The highly motivating EFL/ESL program for teaching children ages 3-6 communication skills in English

NEW

My English Book Series offers:

- **Complete, sequential program with a teaching approach to ensure success**
- **Clear organization to simplify teaching and testing**
- **Four-step learning sequence to increase student participation**

For more information, contact:

Haruhiko Kuwashima • 203 Royal Maison Tsukushino
4-22-4 Ogawa, Machida-shi • Tokyo 194, Japan

Scott, Foresman International Division

1900 East Lake Avenue, Glenview, IL U.S.A.
Telephone (312) 729-3000 • Telex: 724371
Cable: SCORESMAN, Glenview, IL U.S.A.

from Houghton Mifflin:

The text for students who mean business

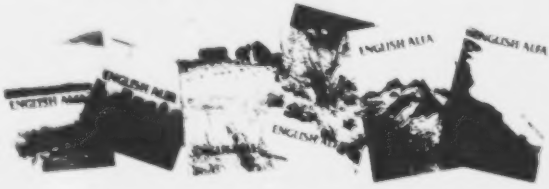
Joseph F. Bosshardt and Richard R. Reynolds
350 pages, 1982, Instructor's Manual & Test Bank, Transparencies
Editorial Advisor: Mineo F. Nakamura, President, Japan Business English Association

Comprehensive, thoroughly researched text teaches students to improve business communication skills. Provides step-by-step instruction in writing and revising letters, memos, reports, and documents. Style, punctuation, and grammar guidelines in each chapter reinforce the basics of good writing.

- comprehensive coverage of essential business topics
- authoritative style guides
- developmental writing assignments and hundreds of exercises
- chapter on world trade communications
- up-to-date computer terminology
- simulations of international business transactions and communications with focus on Japanese and U.S. companies

ENGLISH ALFA

The complete English program that teaches students how to use the language and how the language works



For adoption consideration, request an examination copy from

Yohan Publishers, Service Department, 14-9 Okubo 3-chome, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160, Japan
Tel. 03-208-0181

Houghton Mifflin One Beacon Street Boston, Massachusetts 02108 U.S.A.

©1985 HMC All rights reserved

ISSN 0287-2420

THE Language Teacher

全国語学教育学会

JULY 1987

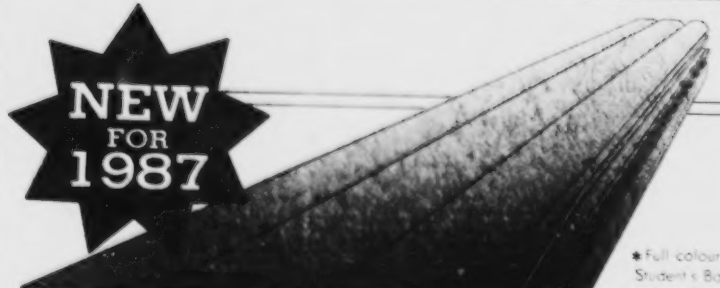
¥750

THE JAPAN ASSOCIATION OF LANGUAGE TEACHERS

JALT

特別増刊号

JALT JOURNAL 8.2



NEW FOR 1987

BBC BEGINNERS' ENGLISH

Judy Garton-Sprenger and Simon Greenall

- Full colour Student's Book: 30 teaching & revision units plus language review section
- Additional practice Workbook: particularly suitable for homework
- Detailed Teacher's Book: explanation of methodology and further practice suggestions
- Class audiocassette: recorded material for the Student's Book
- Language Review Cassette: pronunciation and structure review exercises for classroom or language laboratory use

BBC English courses

A two-stage course designed to be used in the classroom by adults and college and high school students studying English as a foreign language. The course enables students to use English in a variety of practical and real-life situations.
The course aims to help learners to achieve a variety of educational objectives and to tackle a broad range of communicative tasks. The students' involvement in these aims is ensured by the following features :

- Communication practice in social and professional contexts
- Realistic activities and tasks
- Exposure to national and international variations of English
- A learner-centred approach
- A balance between communicative activities, structure practice and grammar
- Systematic skills development

ILS

INTERNATIONAL LEARNING SYSTEMS (JAPAN) LTD.
Matsuoka Central Bldg. 1-7-1 Nishishinjuku, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160
TEL (03) 344-3410 FAX (03) 344-3405

Osaka Office
Osaka Fukoku-Seimei Bldg. 4F, 2-4 Komatsubara-cho, Kita-ku, Osaka 530 TEL (06) 362-2961

The Language Teacher Special Supplement

Japan Association of Language Teachers JOURNAL

VOLUME 8
NUMBER 2
JULY 1987

Typesetting/Layout: S.U. Press, Kobe/C. Arzaga
Printed by: Koshinsha K.K., Osaka

THE JALT JOURNAL

Volume 8, No. 2
July 1987

CONTENTS

Articles

A Study of Nonverbal Intercultural Communication between Japanese and Americans – Focusing on the Use of the Eyes 109
Takahiko Hattori

Sources of Error: The Third Person Singular Present in Japanese Learner English 119
Neville Saunders

Development of Pragmatic Competence by Japanese Learners of English 131
Tomoko Takahashi and Leslie Beebe

Short Article

English as an International Language (EIL): Smith's Philosophy of English for Intercultural Communication 157
Yukihiro Nakayama

Conference Proceedings: Hamamatsu, Nov. 22-24, 1986 . 163
Jack Barrow; George Isted; Soo-im Lee; Hisao Nishijima; Peter Ragan; John Ratliff; Candace Seguinot; Linda Visvat, Cathy Duppenthaler and Natsumi Onaka

Book Reviews

Second Language Acquisition (Wolfgang Klein); Understanding Second Language Acquisition (Rod Ellis) . 216
Reviewed by Bruce Hawkins

Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching (Diane Larsen-Freeman) 223
Reviewed by Richard Stone

Information for Contributors 230

NATIONAL OFFICERS – 1987

President
Jim White

Vice President
Tatsuya Komatsu

Treasurer
Ruth Vergin

Recording Secretary
David Hough

Programmes
Gary Wood

Membership
Keiko Abe

Public Relations
Kazunori Nozawa

CHAPTERS

Sapporo, Sendai
Yamagata, Ibaraki
Gumma, Omiya
Chiba, Tokyo
West Tokyo, Yokohama
Niigata, Kanazawa
Fukui, Nagano
Suwa, Shizuoka
Hamamatsu, Toyohashi
Nagoya, Kyoto
Osaka, Kobe
Okayama, Hiroshima
Tokushima, Takamatsu
Matsuyama, Fukuoka
Nagasaki, Okinawa

128

THE JALT JOURNAL

Volume 8, No. 2
July 1987

Editor
Andrew Wright
Nagoya University

Book Review Editor
Jim Swan
Baika Women's College

Advisory Board

Richard Berwick
Kobe University of Commerce
Karen Campbell
Aichi Prefectural University
David Dinsmore
King Khalid National Guard Hospital, Saudi Arabia
Daniel Evans
Nanzan University
John Fanselow
Teachers College, Columbia University
Nancy Hildebrandt
McGill University
Michael Horne
Nagoya University
Teruyuki Kume
Kobe University of Foreign Studies
Charles Wordell
Tsukuba University

Executive Secretary, Tom Robb
Publications Chairperson, Virginia LoCastro
The Language Teacher Editor, Deborah Foreman-Takano

129

From the Editor

This year, 1987, marks the one hundredth birthday of Esperanto. A hundred years ago Dr Zamenhof, a Polish oculist, set to work to construct a 'new' language, believing that improved communication between peoples of different nations must be one of the surest ways of establishing and maintaining peace in the world. Although Esperanto is probably the most durable of all constructed languages, its status now is hardly more than a linguistic curiosity, while the fortunes of the English language during the past century have been quite different.

Latin, Greek, Spanish and French have all served as international languages in their turn, but none has come anywhere near to rivaling English, in either the number of people who speak it, or the number of varieties and dialects that have evolved. In the sixteenth century English was the native-tongue of the six or seven million inhabitants of an island nation situated on the exposed, westerly flank of Europe. Today somewhere around one billion people (one in every five inhabitants of the planet) use English in some form.

Zamenhof and his co-workers could never have dreamed that English would come to enjoy the status of a world language, as it does today. It is perhaps surprising that until recently there has been little study of English as an international or world language.

In this edition, **Yukihiro Nakayama** contributes a short article outlining Larry Smith's contribution to the study of English as a world language and to the development of an appropriate taxonomy.

In the main articles section, **Takehiko Hattori** compares and contrasts eye-contact behaviour between Japanese and Americans. Believing that mutual eye behaviour is a powerful regulatory mechanism in personal interaction, and that different culturally determined patterns can result in misunderstanding between cultures, the author finds that while Japanese and Americans rely on eye-contact to gain feedback during con-

versation, they use it in different ways. The paper continues by reporting on a survey of the attitudes of bilingual, bicultural Japanese subjects towards different patterns of eye-contact, and ends with a plea for increased awareness of the importance of this aspect of nonverbal communication in human interaction.

Neville Saunders reports on a series of investigations into the sources of Japanese learner error in the use of the third person singular morpheme. From his examination of the grammatical, phonological and lexical environments of such errors, the writer finds that stability in production of the morpheme is greatly influenced by the length and complexity of the surrounding sentence, the phonetic environment, and by associated lexical items. Some pedagogical implications are presented in conclusion.

Tomoko Takahashi and **Leslie Beebe** investigate the extent of pragmatic transfer from students' mother tongue to target language. Their study appears to go beyond previous work in that transfer both in EFL and ESL contexts, as well as at differing levels of English proficiency, is examined. Pragmatic transfer is the transfer of mother-tongue communicative competence in carrying out speech acts to the target language. This study examines the ability of Japanese students to give written refusals in a variety of situations. Qualitative differences in student response are discussed, and evidence for positive transfer at all proficiency levels is presented.

This edition of your *Journal* embodies some changes. Main articles are now headed with abstracts in both Japanese and English, and a Short Article subsection has been established. A section devoted to Conference Proceedings is also making a first appearance. At last November's conference at Hamamatsu a call for publishable versions of presentations was directed to all presenters. The response was gratifying, and

the editors have tried to select contributions so that the diversity of subject area and style of presentation are reflected. We would like to thank all those presenters who did submit their work; this was much appreciated. A similar call for conference-related material will be circulated at this November's conference in Tokyo.

The editorial staff is seeking to give the *Journal* a gradual facelift, but this is proceeding slowly; further modifications are planned. Your reactions to the *Journal* format or to any of the contributions within these pages are most welcome.

A STUDY OF NONVERBAL INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION BETWEEN JAPANESE AND AMERICANS – FOCUSING ON THE USE OF THE EYES

Takahiko Hattori

Abstract

The main purpose of this study is to identify various characteristics in eye behavior between Japanese and Americans. There are many characteristics common to both cultures but there are also many differences between them. Japanese and Americans have different levels for acceptable amounts of eye contact and different rules for when it should occur. It seems desirable that both Japanese and Americans should acquaint themselves with important aspects of eye behavior in order to improve and promote intercultural understanding.

本論文の目的は日米間の視線情報伝達行動の特徴を明らかにすることである。人間はそれぞれが所属している文化によって視線行動が異なる。日本人の視線行動は日本文化を反映し、アメリカ人の視線行動はアメリカ文化を反映している。視線行動を考察することによって、よりよい異文化間コミュニケーションの方策を試みる。

Takahiko Hattori is full time lecturer, Dept. of English, Nihonbashi Jyogakukan Junior College. He also teaches English at Housei University and Tokyo Nougyou University. He graduated from Keio University and received his M.A. from Joetsu University of Education. Currently he is working on Ministry of Education junior high school and senior high school English textbooks.

Introduction

Many misunderstandings in intercultural communication between Japanese and American are due not only to linguistic problems, but also misunderstanding of nonverbal behavior patterns. Nonverbal messages are as important as verbal messages, for they tell us how verbal messages are to be interpreted; for example, nonverbal messages can indicate whether verbal messages are to be taken seriously, jokingly, or whether someone is lying.

A most promising start in studying nonverbal communication is to choose one important nonverbal area and to concentrate on understanding this special area. I have chosen the area of eye behavior. There are two reasons why I have chosen it. One is that "Eye behavior, alone, appears to be the most important regulator of personal interaction." (McCroskey and Wheeless, 1978). Another reason is that there are many differences in eye behavior between Japanese and Americans, and these can give rise to misunderstandings between the two cultures.

People should pay attention to and recognize the importance of eye behavior, and should also know that knowledge of culturally specific eye behavior helps to avoid misunderstanding between different cultures.

1. Japanese and American Eye Behavior

Eye behavior varies according to cultural background. Kanayama (1977) says that in Japanese culture, the amount of gaze is very slight during a conversation, especially when having a conversation with a superior, a Japanese looks slightly downward. Some Japanese even close their eyes when listening. Compared to the Japanese, Kanayama says that Americans think that it is insincere or a sign of weakness of character to avoid eye contact.

LePape (1980) analyzed Yasujiro Ozu's movies and reported that in Ozu's movies, people sit side by side when talking to each other and rarely hold a mutual gaze. He says that it is painful for a Japanese to have a constant gaze while talking, so the Japanese gaze moderately. If a Western person keeps on gazing during a conversation, a Japanese might feel uncomfortable. Concerning the direction of gaze in Japanese people, Sato (1977) says that mutual gaze means to see through each other's mind, and is one of the most basic ways to show mutual reliance. But the Japanese feel comfortable without a lot of eye contact and can maintain lively conversation while avoiding eye contact most of the time. Itami (1973) emphasised the importance of eye behavior and said that when the actor assimilated the role, his gaze direction is exactly where it should be. LePape used Tada's theory (1978), indicating that since Japanese aren't accustomed to looking into other people's eyes, they feel pressured when they find nothing to look at apart from the other person. When a Japanese has a guest in his home, the host must have some place that the guest can look at. For example, looking at the *Kakejiku*, a long vertical hanging scroll with a painting or calligraphy on silk or paper, helps to cut down mutual gaze between the host and the guest. LePape also says that the Japanese attachment to flowers, birds, the wind and moon are related to eye contact. Such things could be the best targets of gaze during a conversation when a Japanese wants to avoid mutual eye contact.

It can be said that Japan has a hierarchical and collective society while American society is based on social equality and individuality (Barnlund 1975, Nakane 1984, Hattori 1985a). Kobayashi (1982) says that in a hierarchical society, people of lower status always have to behave modestly; modesty is shown by averting one's gaze and looking down. Morris (1972) says that the bow has a soothing effect not because it shows a humble attitude but because it represents

a symbolic avoidance of invading another's space. Japanese usually avoid mutual gaze, so this could be one reason why the bow has become very common in Japan.

Japanese children are taught by their parents that looking into other people's eyes is immodest. One of the most popular books on manners in Japan, *Ogasawara-Ryu Reihou Nyumon* (1984), states that one should look between the eyes and the chest when facing another person, instead of looking right into the eyes. American children are taught to look at other people's eyes during conversation. Their parents teach them to look at the eyes when their parents are talking to them. There is a different regulative consciousness behind eye behavior in different cultures (Hattori 1985b).

2. Characteristics Common to Both Japanese and Americans

We have seen that eye behavior varies according to cultural background, but we can find characteristics common to different cultures. I observed patterns of conversation between Japanese and Americans at Joetsu University of Education according to my 12 observational guidelines (see Appendix). The subjects were two Americans from Iowa, male, aged 43, and female, aged 40. All conversation was in English. Japanese subjects included 42 undergraduate students, 21 graduate students, 5 faculty members and their families at Joetsu University of Education. The observation was carried out over a period of exactly two weeks.

There were characteristics of eye behavior found to be common to both Japanese and Americans.

- One looks more while listening than while speaking.
- When one is just about to start speaking, one looks away from the interlocutor.
- At the end of an utterance, the speaker always looks at the interlocutor.
- When the speaker looks at the listener, the listener

looks back at the speaker's eyes and gives signals of various kinds.

- One looks away when one is thinking or organizing one's message.
- One looks less when topics of conversation are not interesting.

These indicate that both Japanese and Americans use eye behavior as a method of obtaining feedback from the interlocutor.

3. Differences in eye behavior between Japanese and Americans

Many Americans regard a person as being a slightly suspicious or shifty character if he does not make a certain amount of culturally prescribed eye contact with his partner when talking face-to-face (Argyle, 1967). Japanese children are taught in school to direct the gaze at the region of their superior's Adam's apple or tie knot (Morsbach, 1982).

Morsbach (1982) quotes comments by Mr. Wagatsuma, a Japanese who has lived in America for many years:

> I am notorious for my habit of looking straight into a person's eyes when I am talking to him. This, I have been told, annoys or makes the person feel uneasy or threatened in Japan. I therefore try not to do that so often when talking to Japanese as I do talking to Americans. Older people, like my father, try not to look at the Emperor's eyes too long (when being presented to him), which means they look slightly downward, psychologically lowering themselves before him.

According to Barnlund (1975) Japanese in general prefer an interpersonal style in which aspects of the self made accessible to others, the "public self," are relatively small,

while the proportion that is not revealed, the "private self," is relatively large. Americans generally prefer a communicative style in which the self made accessible to others is relatively large while the proportion that remains concealed is relatively small. This suggests that what an American knows about himself is more readily shared with others and one manifestation of this principle is the greater eye contact of Americans.

The following data are compiled from surveys given to 45 bilingual and bicultural students who had lived in the United States. They came from four high schools which have special courses or classes for students returning from foreign countries. Data was taken from 72 students, but only 45 could be chosen as being truly bilingual and bicultural; these students had lived in the United States for at least two years and used English to communicate with their friends. All returnees who had studied at Japanese schools only had to be omitted, no matter how long they had lived in the United States; through interviews with them I came to realise that they were neither bilingual nor bicultural.

The questions and answers are summarized as follows:

- *Do you think you gaze more when compared to your Japanese friends who have lived only in Japan?*
  a great deal more 11%
  much more 40%
  a little more 36%
  about the same 13%
  a little less 0%
  much less 0%
  a great deal less 0%

- *What impression did you have of Japanese who avoided making eye contact with you during the conversation?*
  friendly:
  extremely friendly 0%
  very friendly 0%

somewhat friendly 7%
neither friendly nor unfriendly 24%
somewhat unfriendly 42%
very unfriendly 18%
extremely unfriendly 9%

polite:
extremely polite 0%
very polite 2%
somewhat polite 2%
neither polite nor impolite 22%
somewhat impolite 18%
very impolite 36%
extremely impolite 20%

respectful:
extremely respectful 0%
very respectful 0%
somewhat respectful 11%
neither respectful nor disrespectful 36%
somewhat disrespectful 20%
very disrespectful 20%
extremely disrespectful 13%

From this survey, we can say that bilingual and bicultural students gaze more than Japanese students without significant foreign experience, and also have negative impressions about avoiding gaze. There appear to be two reasons for this. One is that when these students first went to the United States, they had difficulty in understanding English. They had to catch as much information as possible from their interlocutor therefore the amount of gaze increased. The second is that it is 'natural' to maintain eye contact while carrying on a conversation in the United States, so the students got used to looking at others during the conversation.

I observed the English Conversation Seminar held at the Education Center in Kanagawa prefecture. The participants

were eight American Monbushou English Fellows (MEF, native speaker assistants who teach English in junior and senior high schools in Japan), one American exchange teacher, 26 Japanese high school English teachers, and three English teachers' consultants. The observation was carried out over two days, for a total of 15 hours using the same twelve observational guidelines. This observation at the Education Center confirmed the results of observations at Joetsu University of Education, and additional characteristics were found as well.

Americans react by eye language much more than do Japanese.

- Japanese use more verbal feedback than Americans. Words like "Yeah" and "Uh-huh" were used by Japanese approximately 20% more often than by Americans.

It is true that Americans sometimes have difficulties in communicating with Japanese because of the lack of eye contact. But we have seen that Japanese do use eye behavior in communication. It can be said that Japanese and Americans have different rules for when it should occur.

Conclusion

In this paper, cultural influences on eye behavior have been discussed. There was a difference in eye behavior between Japanese and Americans, but we were also able to find many characteristics common to both cultures. This means that much eye movement consists of messages to which both Japanese and Americans attach similar meaning. For both Japanese and Americans, eye behavior helps verbal communication and plays a very important role, even though some eye behaviors take place quite unconsciously.

Today's increased intercultural contact may bring additional misunderstanding, friction, and tension; the impact of non-

verbal communication in different cultures needs to be recognised. Eye behavior undoubtedly helps to avoid misunderstanding, not only between different cultures but also within our own culture.

Appendix

Knapp (1978) proposed a system of categories for a global analysis of observing human interaction. It is designed to furnish a general framework for looking at interpersonal transactions and gives a feeling for the type of judgements that need to be made when observing communication. On the basis of Knapp's categories, and in collaboration with another observer and the communicators themselves, a set of guidelines was evolved: (1) Is there generally a lot of visual contact, or not very much? Why? (2) Do one or both participants seem to stare or extend eye contact beyond normal limits? Why? (3) Do one or both participants seem to avoid eye contact beyond normal limits? Why? (4) In what circumstances does one person look away? Why? (5) Where do they look when one person is not looking at the other person? Is there any identifiable pattern? (6) Is there any excessive blinking by one or both parties? When do they blink most? (7) At what point is gaze most evident? Not evident? Why? (8) Do communicator and listener have relatively consistent eye behavior? When does eye behavior change? (9) Are they communicating attitude or emotions with their eyes? (10) Were there gross changes in eye behavior at certain points in the conversation? (11) Were there times when one person's eye behavior elicited a similar or opposite eye behavior response from the other person? (12) What effect does eye gaze, or lack of it, seem to have on the other participant?

References

Argyle, M, *The Psychology of Interpersonal Behaviour*. Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 1967.

Argyle, M. and M. Cook. *Gaze and Mutual Gaze*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1976.

Barnlund, D.C. *Public and Private Self in Japan and the United States*. The Simul Press, 1975.

Hattori, T. 'Communication Pattern and Culture Relationship between Japan and the United States.' Paper presented at the meeting of the Federation of English Language Education Societies in Japan at Narita, 1985a.

Hattori, T. 'Teaching Cultural Backgrounds as a Means of Motivation.' Paper presented at the meeting of the Institute for Research in Language Teaching at Tokyo University of Foreign Studies, 1985b.

Itami, M. *Itami Mansaku Zenshu 2 – Enshuu Shidou Souan*, Chikuma Shobou, 1973.

Kanayama, N. *Hikaku Seikatsu Bunka Jiten – Nippon America Mexico*, Taishuukan Shoten, 1977.

Knapp, M.L. *Nonverbal Communication in Human Interaction*, Holt, Rinehart and Wimston, 1978.

Kobayashi, Y. Higengo Koudou no Hikaku. *Nichieigo Hikaku Kouza 5 – Bunka To Shakai*, 1982, 171-205.

LaFrance, M. and C. Mayo. Racial Differences in Gaze Behavior During Conversations: Two Systematic Observational Studies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 33 (1976), 547-552.

LePape, Jean-Paul. Shisen to Gengo no Dentatsu Hyougen, *Machikaneyama Ronsou*, 14 Nihongakuhen, 1980, 1-23.

McCroskey, J. and L. Wheeless. *Introduction to Human Communication*. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1978.

Morris, D. *Intimate Behavior*. New York: Random House, 1972.

Morsbach, H. Aspects of Nonverbal Communication in Japan. In *Intercultural Communication: A Reader, Third Edition*. Ed. L.A. Samovar and R.E. Porter. Wadsworth Publishing Company: Belmont, California, 1982, 300-319.

Nakane, C. *Japanese Society*. Charles E. Tuttle Company, 1984.

Ogasawara, T. *Ogasawara Ryu Reihou Nyumon – Tachii Hurumai*. Chuuoubungeisha, 1984, 21.

Sato, T. Shisen No Yobikake *Tembou*, Aug. 1977.

Tada, M. Shigusa No Nihon Bunka, Kadokawabunko, 1978.

SOURCES OF ERROR: THE THIRD PERSON SINGULAR PRESENT IN JAPANESE LEARNER ENGLISH

Neville J. Saunders

Abstract

This paper examines the errors in the third person singular (z) morpheme, using data from longitudinal studies of the spontaneous speech of adult Japanese learning English. Sentence length and grammatical complexity were found to be significant factors in the error rate, as was phonological interference (production of word final consonants and clusters) and lexical choice. Some of the implications for teachers are discussed.

この論文は、英語を学ぶ大人の日本人の自発的な話し言葉に対する縦断的研究から得られたデータを使って、三人称単数〈－2〉形態素の使用における誤りを考察しています。誤用率の重要な要因として、音韻上の干渉（語尾の子音と子音連結の発音）や語いの選択と同様、文の長さ及び文法の複雑さもあげられることがわかります。英語教師のためのヒントもあつかわれています。

Neville Saunders is a Senior Lecturer in Asian languages and linguistics at the Western Australian Institute of Technology. He is a graduate of Sydney, Essex and Sheffield Universities.

Introduction

Error in the use of the third person singular present tense marker of verbs is a common feature of the spoken and written English of many EFL learners, including Japanese. The source of the difficulty which underlies this error is often ascribed to one or both of two explanations. The first of these involves the notion of interference from the native language: in most languages (including Japanese) verbs do not conjugate for person and number as English verbs do, and thus it is claimed that the EFL learner will have difficulty in internalising the new distinction between the (ϕ) morpheme required for most of the present tense and the third person singular marker (z) (hereinafter referred to as 3S). The second explanation relates to learnability: as the marker is largely redundant (in most cases it can be omitted without affecting the meaning at all), the learner is more likely to omit it as he/she is focusing attention on the content rather than the form of the communication. These explanations are vague generalisations which do not attempt to define the learners' problems with any precision, and cannot therefore suggest steps for improving performance. They are of little practical value for the teacher whose students wish to communicate with a relatively unmarked (for foreign accent) form of English.

This paper attempts to define the problems of the 3S morpheme with greater precision, to determine what steps might be appropriately applied to improve the success rate of attachment of the morpheme. This is achieved by examination of the actual errors produced by Japanese EFL learners to provide insight into the development patterns and problems associated with the use of the 3S morpheme. From this knowledge the teacher is in a better position to intervene effectively (or to choose not to intervene) in the acquisition process. The method of research is not new. It was suggested by Corder (1967) as a means of discovering learning patterns. This paper,

however, goes beyond other morpheme studies in considering the influence of phonological and lexical factors in addition to the grammatical.

Subjects, Data and Method

The method used is a form of content analysis. Use was made of a data base of 6811 sentences produced in 10 individual longitudinal studies of the spontaneous informal speech of Japanese students aged sixteen to thirty enrolled in an intensive English programme in Australia. There was a wide range of ability in spoken English across the 10 subjects, and they were taught in two groups (labelled advanced and standard) according to their level of proficiency in English. There were five subjects from each group.

From this data base all sentences which required the use of the 3S attached to main verbs which do not also function as auxiliaries (i.e. *is*, *has*, and *does*) were abstracted as in Dulay and Burt (1973, etc.), a total of 220 obligatory situations in 216 sentences. All situations were then rated for error in the 3S morpheme. The errors noted were all omissions of the 3S marker, as found in the sentence:

Y2: He pronounce- # (English) very different from me and Australian people.

Situations where it is difficult to determine whether there is an error or not (e.g. if an /s/ or /z/ follows without a pause) are not counted in the total. Error rates were then determined for each study and for each individual in each recording session.

Results

There were errors in 98 of the 220 obligatory situations, an average of 45%. This rate of use is considered to be low when compared with more than 1,200 uses of *is* and a similar figure

for the use of the unmarked present tense form. Individually, however, the subjects revealed a wide range of error rates, from 16% to 78%. The highest error rates occurred unexpectedly amongst the more advanced students, and the error rates did not decrease during the course of the study. These latter two findings were in contrast to previous studies of the development of questions and relatives in the same data base (Saunders, 1983, 1986b) which showed that the more advanced subjects performed better and there was an improvement during the course of the study. As a result more detailed grammatical, lexical and phonological analysis was undertaken.

Grammatical Environment

The error rates were first investigated according to sentence complexity, defined in terms of the number of clauses contained within the sentence, and the results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Error Rates in Simple and Complex Sentences

Sentence Complexity	Number of Sentences	Error Rate
1 clause	102	37%
2 clauses	89	55%
3 or more clauses	25	60%

From this table it can be seen that complex sentences (two or more clauses) have higher rates of error than simple sentences (one clause). Thus the error is more likely to appear in longer, more complex sentences, suggesting that the learner does not apply the same level of commitment to producing correct forms when involved in organising longer sentences. This is the trade-off effect. It is not possible from this data to determine whether there is a ratio of length to error rate beyond the simple-complex distinction because of the relatively low

incidence of longer sentences which results in the difference in error rate not being significant.

If sentence complexity involves more than the number of clauses, and is dependent on the types of clauses, then the error rate should reflect the hierarchy of "difficulty" in respect of the various types of clauses. Further analysis of the sentences by types of clauses used showed that there was no significant difference in error rate according to the linear order of the clauses (that is whether the subordinate clause preceded or followed the principal clause), nor whether the obligatory situation occurred in the principal or the subordinate clause. What was significant, however, was the clause type itself. The group of sentences containing co-ordinate clauses, adverbial clauses of reason or reported speech produced an error rate of 50%, while the group comprising temporal, conditional and relative clauses produced an error rate of 79% in the 3S morpheme. It is therefore concluded that there are at least two classes of complexity by clause type which result in different levels of trade-off error.

This finding may explain why the more advanced students produced higher levels of error – they produced longer and more complex sentence types. This also may explain why there did not appear to be any noticeable improvement during the course of the study – the expected improvement in error rate (from learning and practicing) is offset by the increase in trade-off error (from the production of more complex sentences).

Phonological Environment

The phonological environment relating to this morpheme may be considered in three sections – the phonological shape of the morpheme itself, the preceding environment and the following environment. The morpheme does provide particular problems for Japanese learners as its attachment often pro-

duces a syllable final consonant cluster which does not occur in their language.

This morpheme has three allomorphs (phonetically different shapes) – [s], [z] or [əz] – depending on the preceding phoneme. The use and error rate for each form is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Error Rates in the 3S Allomorphs

Allomorph	Obligatory Situations	Errors	
	No.	No.	%
[s]	104	40	38
[z]	103	49	48
[əz]	13	9	69
Total	220	98	45

This table shows the voiceless [s] the most stable of the three, with the [əz] the least stable. Further it shows that while [s] and [z] have nearly equal distribution, [əz] is used far less frequently. While it would be predicted that [əz] would occur less frequently as it is attached to words ending in a smaller number of phonemes than the other two, the high error rate indicates greater difficulty with this form, possibly to the extent of avoidance (the conscious or subconscious side-stepping of a particular form or structure).

The effect of the preceding phoneme may be judged from Table 3. This table includes only those phonemes with 10 or more obligatory situations. Two factors stand out in this table. First, the error rate for /ts/ is nearly twice the average, and second, the error rate for /ks/ is only half the average. From this it could be inferred that the /ts/ cluster is much more difficult for Japanese speakers than the /ks/ cluster. It is also interesting to note that the singleton consonant /z/

attached to words ending with a vowel produces error at the average rate. It seems that it is no more difficult to produce a singleton /z/ than a cluster for this morpheme.

Table 3

Use and Error of 3S by Preceding Phoneme

Phoneme	Obligatory Situations	Errors	
	No.	No.	%
/m/	15	8	53
/v/	14	6	43
/t/	32	24	75
/d/	14	6	43
/n/	16	8	50
/k/	70	15	22
vowel	42	20	45
other consonants	17	11	65
Total	220	98	45

The environment following the cluster was also analysed, but because the morpheme is conditioned by the preceding and not the following environment, the range of possible combinations is far greater and the distribution in each category correspondingly smaller; fewer valid generalisations are therefore possible. A larger data base is required to ensure a sufficient number of obligatory situations. Further, an acoustic study (Saunders 1986a) shows that word final clusters are often followed by devoiced vowels and glottal stops which may affect the phonological interpretation in this situation. There were, however, 14 situations where a clause- or sentence-final pause followed the 3S morpheme and 12 (88%) of these are in error. This may be related to the falling intensity in this position affecting the pronunciation of the fricative.

To sum up, the phonological environment plays a significant

role in the error rate in this morpheme, and the following generalisations can be made:

1. The [əz] is more difficult than the [s] or [z] allomorphs.
2. The [ts] cluster is more difficult than other clusters.
3. The singleton consonant [z] after vowels is no easier than clusters.
4. Clause- and sentence-finally the morpheme is more likely to be omitted than medially.

Lexical Environment

The obligatory situations for the 3S morpheme occurred with some sixty different verbs, but eight account for 41% of the total use. These are listed in Table 4 together with the number of uses, error rate and number of subjects displaying them.

Table 4

Use, Error and Distribution of Verbs with 3S Attached

Verb	Use	Errors		Subjects Displaying
	No.	No.	%	No.
take	17	5	29	6
go	13	3	23	4
make	11	4	36	6
mean	11	4	36	4
come	10	7	70	6
depend	10	2	20	5
like	10	1	10	7
want	10	7	70	5
Total	92	33	36	

Of these verbs *go*, *like* and *depend* have a much lower error rate than would be predicted from the analysis of the final

phoneme (table 3), while *come* has a somewhat higher error rate. It is interesting that *come* also revealed a higher error rate than *go* in this verb attachment and in the past tense as well. Although all verbs were quite widely distributed, as were the errors, the error in *take* was confined to two subjects in the standard group, in the sentence type:

It take- x minutes from A to B.

One subject produced the morpheme correctly twice after classroom dialogue practice using the pattern, but some months later produced the error twice. This suggests that rote memorising a morpheme in a dialogue does not result in the acquisition of a morpheme if the subject has not reached the appropriate level to use it.

The study of the lexical use shows that there are some interesting problems in this area, but again a larger data base might reveal the extent to which error rate is determined by words or classes of words.

Discussion

Understanding the sources of 3S error is essential for the teacher who proposes intervention to reduce the incidence of omission. This study has shown that there is more than a single source of difficulty which can affect the error rate, and as a result it is argued that any attempt at remediation would require understanding of at least the major factors. The factors analysed here fell within the three areas of grammar, phonology and lexicon.

There is a relationship between complexity of sentence and error rate. From this it can be concluded that the error is both more likely to occur and less open to correction in complex sentences, especially those involving relative, temporal or conditional clauses. This raises the question as to whether correction should be given in all situations, or only in

those where the correct form could be expected more often.

The errors relating to the phonetic environment suggest that much of the difficulty with the 3S morpheme relates to interference at the level of phonology. For many learners additional practice in the [əz] allomorph is indicated to compensate for its lower frequency of use. In addition practice in word final /z/ and consonant clusters would seem warranted: studies of the past tense by Wolfram (1985), of consonant clusters in general by Ioup (1984), Sato (1984) and Greenberg (1983), and of word final /z/ by Dickerson (1975) suggest that for many EFL students, including Japanese, these phonological problems are serious. Dickerson, interestingly, showed that the level of formality was a factor in Japanese realising a word final /z/ correctly. Some further practice with the /ts/ cluster is also indicated for Japanese students, especially in producing a longer /s/ in this environment, as an acoustic study (Saunders, 1986a) shows the length of the /s/ in the /ts/ cluster is very short. Finally, it is necessary to practice maintaining the fricative in the clause- or sentence-final position.

The use and omission of the morpheme in particular lexical environments highlights the fact that learning to use a morpheme correctly in a sentence pattern is not a guarantee that it will be generalised to other sentences, or even maintained in the same pattern. Here, the teacher's expectations of his students are important factors affecting the variable use of the morpheme. It is clear from this research that studies of L2 morpheme acquisition must consider more than just the simple counts of presence or absence – if an adequate understanding of the processes is to be achieved.

Conclusion

This study found that the stability of the third person singular present tense morpheme in the spoken English of

Japanese was affected by the length and complexity of the sentence, by the phonetic shape of the morpheme and the phonetic environment, and by the lexical item it is attached to. These findings were specifically:

1. The morpheme is more likely to be omitted in sentences of more than one clause than in a sentence of one clause.

2. The morpheme is more likely to be omitted in relative, temporal and conditional clauses than in simple co-ordination, causal or reported speech clauses.

3. The [əz] form of the morpheme is more likely to be omitted than the other forms.

4. The morpheme is more likely to be omitted in the cluster /ts/ and less likely in the cluster /ks/.

5. The morpheme is more likely to be omitted in clause- or sentence-final position.

6. The morpheme is more likely to be omitted with some words like *come* than with others like *go* or *depend*.

References

Corder, S.P. 1967. The Significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 5*, 161-70.

Dickerson, L.J. 1975. The Learner's interlanguage as a system of variable rules. *TESOL Quarterly, 9 (4)*, 401-407.

Dulay, H., and Burt, M. 1973. Should we teach children syntax? *Language Learning, 23*, 245-258.

Greenberg, C. 1983. Syllable structure in second language acquisition. *CUNY Forum, 9*, 41-64.

Ioup, G. 1984. Is there a structural foreign accent? A comparison of syntactic and phonological errors in second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 34*, 1-17.

Sato, C.J. 1984. Phonological Processes in second language acquisition: another look at interlanguage syllable structure. *Language Learning, 34*, 43-57.

Saunders, N.J. 1983. "Will you get off this plane somewhere?" Form and function in the L2 acquisition of English questions by adult Japanese. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin, 7 (2)*, 66-83.

Saunders, N.J. 1986a. Voiceless stop-sibilant clusters in Japanese English, *PROPH (Progress Reports from Oxford Phonetics), 1*, 55-74.

Saunders, N.J. 1986b. Development of Relative clauses in Japanese English. *JALT Journal, 7 (2)*, 171-187.

Wolfram, W. 1985. Variability in Tense marking: a case for the obvious. *Language Learning, 35*, 229-253.

CROSS CURRENTS

AN INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Cross Currents **pursues both theoretical and practical issues central to ESL/EFL instructors. Within each issue, you'll discover articles about English language teaching theory, balanced by ideas for daily lesson planning, all of which is put into international perspective by cross-cultural themes.**

Look at selections from recent issues:

- Duppenthaler: "A Review of Cognitive Styles of Learning and Their Applications in TESOL."
- Kitao: "Using Authentic Video Materials."
- Dussourd: "An American Teacher in Kiev: Impressions of English Education in the U.S.S.R."
- La Forge: "Community Language Learning."
- Sports Special: A Collection of Sports-Related EFL/ESL Exercises.
- Plus Bright Ideas and Book Reviews.

ISSN 0289-1239

Cross Currents Written *by* teachers *for* teachers.

SUBSCRIPTIONS	Single Issue	1 Year	2 Years
Inside Japan	¥1,250	¥2,500	¥5,000
Outside Japan	$6.00	$10.00	$18.00
Institutions	—	$15.00	$25.00

Special rates available for JALT members.

Cross Currents is published twice a year by the Language Institute of Japan.

• ***Japan Subscriptions:***
School Book Service
Ohkawa Building
3-23-4 Takadanobaba
Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160
03-364-1261
(By postal transfer to Tokyo postal account No. 9-86192, or cash delivery – Genkin Kakitome.)

• ***U.S. Subscriptions:***
Alemany Press
2501 Industrial Pkwy. W.
Hayward, CA 94545
(800)-227-2375
(Make checks payable to Alemany Press)

• ***Other:***
Cross Currents
Language Institute of Japan
4-14-1 Shiroyama
Odawara, Kanagawa 250
Japan
(Make checks payable to *Cross Currents* (LIOJ) drawn on a U.S. bank.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE BY JAPANESE LEARNERS OF ENGLISH*

Tomoko Takahashi
and
Leslie M. Beebe

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to report on a study examining the developmental pragmatic competence of Japanese learners of English as compared with native Americans. Their pragmatic competence was analyzed qualitatively in terms of the tone and content of their refusals. Qualitative assessments of transfer strategies were also given.

The data are based on the written refusals of 80 subjects – 20 native speakers using Japanese and 20 native speakers using English, as compared with 40 Japanese students speaking English (20 EFL and 20 ESL). Within the ESL and EFL categories, 10 students are at the graduate level and 10 at the undergraduate level, categories which reflect approximate level of proficiency.

Tomoko Takahashi (Ed.D., 1984, Columbia University) is engaged in research in the TESOL/Applied Linguistics program at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Leslie Beebe (Ph.D., 1974, University of Michigan) is Chair of Languages and Literature at Teachers College. She is editor of a forthcoming book, *Issues in Second Language Acquisition: Multiple Perspectives.*

*An earlier version of this paper was presented at the International TESOL Convention, Anaheim, California, March 6, 1986. We wish to thank Shigenori Tanaka, Hajime Abe, Robin Uliss-Weltz, and Hiromi Takahashi for their assistance in data collection for the study.

We address the issue of pragmatic transfer as a function of learning context (ESL vs. EFL) and proficiency level. Taylor (1975) has demonstrated that beginners have the highest level of transfer, with transfer *decreasing* as proficiency increases. We hypothesize that this does not occur in our sample at the pragmatic level. Our reasoning is that the lower proficiency students do not have the fluency in the target language to give reign to pragmatic transfer phenomena. Based on the results of the study, we attempt to explain the developmental pragmatic competence of Japanese EFL/ESL students.

本稿では、日本人英語学習者におけるプラグマティックスの発達課程がいかなるものであるか、その調査結果を報告し考察を行う。ここでは、招待等の「断わり方」に焦点をあて、日本語と英語では返答のし方に違いがあるとの推測のもと、それぞれの言語（第二言語又は外国語としての英語、母国語としての英語と日本語）における返答の内容及び語調を比較対照した。さらに、日本人英語学習者における母国語の影響の度合を調べることも試みた。

研究データは、以下の4グループ（各20名）がそれぞれの言語で答えたアンケートに基づく：(1)日本人が日本語で、(2)アメリカ人が英語で、(3)英語を日本で学ぶ日本人が英語で、(4)英語をアメリカで学ぶ日本人が英語で。(3)と(4)の2グループは、それぞれ大学と大学院のレベル（各10名）にわかれ、英語能力の違いも考慮に入れた。

本調査では、母国語の影響は、英語を学ぶ環境(英語をアメリカで学ぶ場合と日本で学ぶ場合) 及び英語習得レベルによって左右される可能性があることを予測する。例えば、テイラー (1975) は、母国語の影響は、初級学習者において最も強く、学習が進むにつれ減少する、との調査結果を発表しているが、本調査においては、プラグマティックスのレベルでは、同じ現象は見られず、むしろ学習がある程度進んだ者ほど母国語の影響を受け易いと予測する。これは初級学習者には、プラグマティックスのレベルで、日本語のディスコースを導入する英語能力に欠けるとの理由からである。これらの予測のもと、日本人英語学習者のプラグマティックスの発達課程の一考察を行うものである。

Introduction

One of the major cross-cultural "sticking points" for ESL students in English-speaking countries is the art of saying "no." The inability to say "no" clearly and politely, though not too directly, has led many non-native speakers to offend their interlocutors. The problem seems to stem in part from cross-cultural differences in refusal patterns.

The consequences of failing to recognize pragmatic differences between languages can be serious in international political situations where conversation is translated for foreign diplomats and politicians. For instance, in 1974, the late Prime Minister of Japan, Mr. Sato, was asked by President Nixon whether he would agree to self-imposed restrictions on the export of fabrics to the U.S. Mr. Sato answered,

"Zensho shimasu." This Japanese expression was literally translated into English as, "I'll take care of it." When used by politicians, however, this expression actually consitutes a polite refusal in Japanese. Later on, of course, Mr. Nixon became very angry because the Japanese did nothing.

At the interpersonal level, too, we find many problems which stem in part from cross-cultural differences in the rules of speaking (see Hymes, 1972; Wolfson, 1983 for discussion of rules of speaking). In our large-scale project, we have been examining the problems which non-native speakers face in making refusals in a second language (L2). The major purpose of the project is to present some evidence of "pragmatic transfer" in the ESL/EFL learners' refusals. Pragmatic transfer is defined here as transfer of first language (L1) sociocultural communicative competence in performing L2 speech acts (cf. Beebe, in press; Beebe, Takahashi, & Uliss-Weltz, in press).

Our previous study (Beebe *et al.*, in press) has demonstrated that pragmatic transfer exists in the order, frequency, and intrinsic content and tone of semantic formulas used in ESL refusals. For instance, as compared with American native speakers, both Japanese speaking Japanese and Japanese speaking English as an L2 tend to use expressions of regret (or apologies) more frequently with higher-status interlocutors, but less frequently with lower-status interlocutors. It has been also found that Americans typically started a refusal with an expression of positive opinion such as "I would like to." Then they expressed regret. Thirdly they gave an excuse. When refusing equal status interlocutors, Japanese subjects (both in Japanese and in English) started with an apology or a statement of regret and then gave an excuse directly after that as their second formula. That is, they often omitted an initial expression of positive opinion in their refusals. A difference between American and Japanese refusals was also found in the actual content of the formulas used. Japanese excuses are often much less specific than American

excuses, but in general Japanese refusals often sound more formal and sometimes even "philosophical."

A great deal of other work on pragmatic transfer has also focused on speech acts – how they are realized in native languages (NL) and how non-native speakers realize them in their L2. Cohen and Olshtain (1981), for instance, analyzed the apologies of 44 college students in Israel – 32 native speakers of Hebrew learning intermediate-level ESL and 12 native English speakers. They compared native English, native Hebrew, and Israeli ESL apologies. In written role-played responses, they found that Israeli ESL students were less likely to offer repair, were less likely to acknowledge responsibility, and expressed less intensity of regret than American native speakers of English. Cohen and Olshtain argued that their patterns often (though not always) reflected sociocultural transfer of native Hebrew patterns.

Olshtain (1983) reported on a related study of apologies in Israel where the target language (TL) was Hebrew, rather than English. She examined data from 27 subjects from L1 English or Russian backgrounds using Hebrew as an L2 as compared with data from 36 subjects (12 each) using native English, Russian, or Hebrew. She found that English had the highest rate of apology on all semantic formulas. Hebrew had the lowest on all except the offer of repair. Thus the general pattern appeared to be: English • Russian • Hebrew.

Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) examined both native and non-native expressions of gratitude. Their subjects came from 15 different language backgrounds. Subjects were asked to write on a questionnaire what they thought they would say when they received a gift, favor, reward, or service. The researchers found all kinds of difficulties, especially grammatical and lexical problems (e.g., "I very appreciate").

There exist many other studies focusing on the acquisition of L2 pragmatics (e.g., Blum-Kulka, 1982). Comparing such studies, however, we have come to realize that some studies

convincingly argued for the importance of pragmatic transfer, while others discussed more general problems not necessarily arising from NL transfer. It has also come to our attention that subjects who had participated in these studies on speech acts had varying levels of L2 proficiency. Subjects were also from different learning contexts (e.g., EFL and ESL). No study that we know of, however, has investigated the effects of different L2 proficiency levels and of the EFL vs. ESL context upon the development of L2 pragmatics.

In the present study we will continue to examine the phenomenon of pragmatic transfer while investigating developmental aspects of L2 pragmatic competence as well. Will there be evidence of pragmatic transfer in both learning contexts (EFL and ESL) and at both proficiency levels (lower and higher)? Will there be a difference in the amount of transfer according to different learning contexts and proficiency levels? Regarding the answers to these questions, we have formulated the following hypotheses:

1. There will be evidence of pragmatic transfer in both the EFL and the ESL contexts.
2. There will be evidence of pragmatic transfer at both the lower and higher proficiency levels.
3. There will be more pragmatic transfer in the EFL context than in the ESL context.
4. There will be more pragmatic transfer among higher proficiency learners than among lower proficiency levels.

The first three hypotheses may seem to be "common sense" to the researcher since evidence for them is well established in the literature. The fourth one, however, is less expected. Evidence exists in the literature to the contrary. For example, in the area of L2 morpho-syntax, Taylor (1975) has demonstrated that beginners have the highest level of transfer, with transfer *decreasing* as proficiency increases. It is possible, however, that this generalization does not hold at the pragmatic

level. Our reasoning is that lower proficiency learners lack the fluency in English to fall into the negative transfer trap. It is the higher proficiency learners who already have a certain fluency who will more often fall prey to transfer. We would suggest that transfer at the pragmatic level is not exactly parallel to transfer at the phonological or morpho-syntactic level because pragmatic transfer requires competence at the lower linguistic levels (e.g., phonology, grammar, lexicon). We expect that lower proficiency learners may not be able to encode translations of socioculturally appropriate Japanese patterns. They will have to resort to a simplification strategy. More advanced learners, however, will be able to encode English phrases that reflect Japanese norms of politeness, or perhaps indirectness. Thus transfer will be possible. With very advanced learners, the amount of transfer will again decrease because they will reach near native ability in the second language. In sum, we expect a skewed bell curve as the developmental pattern for pragmatic transfer. And we anticipate that the high point for pragmatic transfer will occur later than the high point for phonological or morpho-syntactic transfer.

Method

Subjects

Eighty subjects took part in the study:

(1) 20 Japanese speaking Japanese in Japan (JJJ)
(2) 20 Japanese learners of English in Japan (JEJ)
(3) 20 Japanese speakers of English in U.S. (JEA)
(4) 20 American native speakers of English (AEA)

Both categories JEJ and JEA are English learners, the primary focus of our study. However, JEJs are EFL learners in Japan while JEAs are ESL learners in the United States, thus they are differentiated by learning context. Within the EFL and

ESL categories, 10 students are at the undergraduate level (JE-lo and JEA-lo) and 10 at the graduate level (JEJ-hi and JEA-hi), categories which were chosen in order to obtain two different levels of English proficiency. [Mean Age: JEJ-lo, 21.4; JEJ-hi, 26.0; JEA-lo, 21.3; JEA-hi, 28.2]

All JEJ subjects (Japanese speaking English in Japan) were students majoring in English at a university in Japan. They had studied English for an average length of 11 years. Four out of the 20 JEJs (all four from JEJ-hi) had traveled in the United States, but for less than one month. The other 16 had never been in any English-speaking country before. Although they had been exposed to a limited amount of natively spoken English, they had a good command of English especially in reading and writing.

All JEA subjects (Japanese speaking English in America) were living in the New York City area. The undergraduate students were all ESL students from the Queens College English Language Institute. They had spent an average of 7 months (range: 4 months to 1 year) in the United States. None of them had majored in English before coming to the United States, accordingly they had less academic training in English than the JEJs. The graduate students were in different majors, e.g., TESOL, business, art and comparative literature, at four different graduate institutions. They had been in the United States for an average of 4 years (range: 1½ years to 8 years) and were fluent in English.

Materials and Procedures

All 80 subjects were asked to fill out a Discourse Completion Test (DCT), a questionnaire consisting of 12 written role-play situations. Each situation contained a blank in which only a refusal would fit. The word "refusal" was not used in order to avoid biasing the respondent's choice of response. The 12 situations were categorized into four stimulus types

eliciting refusals: requests, invitations, offers, and suggestions. One of each group required a refusal to a higher status person, one to a lower status person, and one to a person of equal status. Examples of the role-play situations were refusing a worker's request for a raise, refusing an invitation to the boss's house for a party and refusing an offer to pay for a broken vase.

Data Analysis

The refusals were analyzed as consisting of a sequence of semantic formulas (see Appendix A). For example, if a respondent refused an invitation to a friend's house for dinner, saying "I'm sorry, I have theater tickets that night. Maybe we could come by later for a drink," this response would be coded as consisting of three formulas: [expression of regret] [excuse] [offer of alternative].

In analyzing the data, we coded the order of semantic formulas used in each refusal. The total number of semantic formulas of any kind used for each situation was obtained for each subject group. In addition, we calculated the frequency of each formula (e.g., the number of excuses) for each situation. We also noted the content of certain semantic formulas. For example, "I'm busy" and "I have three final exams tomorrow" are both coded as excuses; however the two clearly differ in specificity and persuasiveness.

In generalizing about the typical order of semantic formulas, we focused only on formulas which were used by 40% or more of the subjects in each group. In some cases, however, independent formulas in a similar category were grouped together. If they reached a frequency higher than 40% and if there was a strong tendency for them to be placed in the same order, these formulas were also considered in the overall sequence. For example, [positive opinion], [pause filler] and other adjuncts tended to be placed in initial position. Adjuncts

are formulas which, if standing alone, do not constitute a refusal. In the case of adjuncts, each one separately might not reach 40% frequency. However, they were sometimes lumped together to bring out the generalization that they were frequent alternatives in the initial slot.

Results and Discussion

In the course of our analysis, we first examined the typical order of formulas for Japanese speaking Japanese natively in Japan (JJJs) and Americans speaking English natively in America (AEAs). Next we examined the patterns of the Japanese non-native speakers of English to see if they resembled native Japanese patterns (thereby reflecting NL transfer) or if they resembled native English patterns (thereby reflecting TL acquisition). The following are some examples of pragmatic transfer.

First, in the situation of refusing an employee's request for a raise, there is clear evidence of transfer (see Table 1). Japanese native speakers began with a statement of positive opinion (e.g., "I would like to help you") and/or a statement of empathy for the employee's predicament (e.g., "I understand your situation"). All four groups of Japanese learners of English used the expression of empathy to begin with, whereas American native speakers never did. This pattern was clear evidence of transfer.

Secondly, in the situation of refusing an invitation to a friend's house for dinner, there was again reason to suggest pragmatic transfer (see Table 2). Japanese native speakers typically began with an apology, while all groups of Japanese learners of English also began with an expression of regret except the most advanced students who were living in the U.S. (JEA-hi). Since "I'm sorry" can be an apology or a statement of regret, we considered the Japanese learners' choice of "I'm sorry" in the initial position as evidence of transfer. The most

advanced Japanese learners of English typically began with an expression of gratitude, an expression which Japanese native speakers occasionally began their utterances with and Americans tended to end with.

Table 1

Typical Order of Semantic Formulas

In Refusals of Employee's Request for a Raise
[Refuser in a Higher Status]

Group	Order of Formulas			
	1	2	3	4
JJJ (NL)	empathy or positive opinion	excuse	can't	–
JEJ-lo	positive opinion empathy, filler	excuse	–	–
JEJ-hi	positive opinion empathy, filler	excuse regret	can't	–
JEA-lo	positive opinion or empathy	can't	excuse	–
JEA-hi	empathy or pause filler	positive opinion	excuse	can't
AEA (TL)	positive opinion	regret	excuse	can't

Key:
JJJ = Japanese speaking Japanese in Japan
JEJ = Japanese speaking English in Japan
JEA = Japanese speaking English in America
AEA = American speaking English in America
-lo = lower proficiency (subgroup)
-hi = higher proficiency (subgroup)

Table 2

Typical Order of Semantic Formulas

In Refusals to Invitation to Friend's House for Dinner
[Refuser in an Equal Status]

Group	Order of Formulas			
	1	2	3	4
JJJ (NL)	apology or adjuncts	excuse	–	–
JEJ-lo	regret*	excuse	–	–
JEJ-hi	regret*	excuse	–	–
JEA-lo	regret*	excuse or can't	–	–
JEA-hi	gratitude	excuse	–	–
AEA (TL)	positive opinion	regret	excuse	gratitude

Note:

*Apology and regret are distinct in Japanese, but both may be realized as "I'm sorry" in English. JEJ and JEA responses are coded as regret, not apology, although they could be a translation from Japanese apologies.

In the situation of refusing the boss's invitation to a party, transfer was again apparent (see Table 3). The native speakers of Japanese sometimes began with a statement of positive opinion, but also typically began with an apology. This latter pattern appeared again in three of the Japanese groups which began with an expression of regret. American native speakers typically began with a positive opinion (e.g., "That sounds wonderful") and then expressed regret secondarily, before

leading into their excuse. Starting off with regret sounds a little abrupt to the American ear. It must be also noted that the Japanese native group sometimes ended with an apology, as did the most advanced Japanese group (JEA-hi).

Table 3

Typical Order of Semantic Formulas
In Refusals to Boss's Invitation to a Party
[Refuser in a Lower Status]

Group	Order of Formulas			
	1	2	3	4
JJJ (NL)	positive opinion or apology	excuse	avoidance or apology	–
JEJ-lo	pause filler gratitude or regret*	regret* excuse	excuse	–
JEJ-hi	regret* or adjuncts	excuse	can't	–
JEA-lo	regret*	can't	excuse	–
JEA-hi	positive opinion gratitude, or pause filler	excuse	regret*	–
AEA (TL)	positive opinion or gratitude	regret	excuse	–

Note:

*Apology and regret are distinct in Japanese, but both may be realized as "I'm sorry" in English. JEJ and JEA responses are coded as regret, not apology, although they could be a translation from Japanese apologies.

Finally, the refusal to accept the cleaning woman's offer to pay for a broken vase was another situation where transfer appeared (see Table 4).

Table 4

Typical Order of Semantic Formulas

In Refusals to Cleaning Woman's Offer to Pay for a Broken Vase [Refuser in a Higher Status]

Group	Order of Formulas		
	1	2	3
JJJ (NL)	let interlocutor off the hook	philosophy	let interlocutor off the hook
JEJ-lo	let interlocutor off the hook	philosophy explanation	let interlocutor off the hook
JEJ-hi	let interlocutor off the hook	philosophy explanation	let interlocutor off the hook
JEA-lo	let interlocutor off the hook	explanation	let interlocutor off the hook
JEA-hi	let interlocutor off the hook	philosophy	let interlocutor off the hook
AEA (TL)	let interlocutor off the hook	explanation	–

Note:
The semantic formula "let interlocutor off the hook" is a subcategory of "Attempt to dissuade interlocutor" (see Appendix A).

All Japanese groups led with an attempt to let the cleaning woman off the hook (e.g., "That's okay," "Never mind"), as did American native speakers. The difference was in the fact

that all Japanese groups tended to make a statement of philosophy second (e.g., "Things with shapes eventually break," "To err is human") and to return thirdly to another attempt to let the interlocutor off the hook (e.g., "You can forget about it"). Americans typically let the interlocutor off the hook once and did not feel the need to do so again or to philosophize in addition. They were much briefer.

These four examples have shown that transfer, though not ubiquitous, is a fairly common strategy. Even among our relatively advanced subjects in this study, transfer seems to exist in the order of semantic formulas in one third of the situations.

Transfer is also evident in the frequency of semantic formulas used by each group. Table 5 presents total frequency counts of semantic formulas (or combined categories) used by each group in 12 situations. Preliminary evidence of pragmatic transfer was found in the frequency of some formulas. For example, the frequencies listed under the category "Dissuade" in Table 5 seem to reflect a tendency for all Japanese groups (both in Japanese and in English) to try to dissuade the interlocutor. The category "Attempt to Dissuade" includes such semantic formulas as: (1) threat or statement of negative consequences to the requester, (2) guilt trip, (3) criticize, insult, or attack the interlocutor, etc.

More interesting than the difference in frequency was the difference in range of situations where dissuasion was used. Japanese groups tended to use "dissuade" formulas in many different situations, whereas Americans used such formulas in only a few situations (e.g., when refusing the second offer of a piece of cake, or a friend's suggestion to try a new diet). It seems that refusals by Japanese groups in general tend to show a wider variety and range of semantic formulas than the American group.

As previously mentioned, both in Japanese and English, the Japanese groups tended to make a statement of philosophy in refusing the cleaning woman's offer to pay for a broken vase.

169

Similarly, Japanese groups tended to make a statement of principle (e.g., "I make a rule to be temperate in eating," "It's our regulation that we should take care of all business matters in the office"). Both the statements of philosophy and the statement of principle contributed to a formal tone in Japanese.

In summary, this discussion indicates that Hypotheses 1 and 2 of the study were confirmed. That is, there is evidence of pragmatic transfer in both the EFL and ESL contexts and at both the lower and higher proficiency levels.

Table 5

Total Frequency Count of Semantic Formulas Used by Each Group in 12 Situations

Formula or CATEGORY	Average Frequency per Subject*					
	JJJ	JEJ-lo	JEJ-hi	JEA-lo	JEA-hi	AEA
I. DIRECT	2.1	2.3	2.8	6.0	3.7	4.1
II. INDIRECT						
A. Regret**	4.4**	3.5	2.3	4.5	3.0**	3.1
B. Wish	.2	.1	.7	0.0	.9	.6
C. Excuse	9.9	8.9	7.7	7.7	9.2	9.5
D. Alternative	1.9	.9	1.2	1.3	1.8	.8
E. Conditions	.7	.2	.4	.5	1.0	.7
G. Princ./Phil.	.9	.8	.8	.1	1.1	.3
H. Dissuade	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.9	2.8	1.8
I. Acceptance	.4	.6	.6	.8	.3	.3
J. Avoidance	4.3	1.1	1.4	1.1	.5	1.5
Adjuncts						
1. Pos. Opinion	3.0	2.6	1.4	2.0	2.2	3.8
2. Empathy	.7	.5	.5	.2	.4	0.0
3. Pause Filler	.9	2.9	1.7	2.1	3.0	3.0
4. Gratitude	1.8	1.5	2.6	2.1	3.0	3.0

Note:

*Obtained by dividing the total frequency count of formulas used by each group in 12 situations by the number of subjects in the group.

**Includes apologies.

Let us now focus on Hypotheses 3 and 4, regarding the amount of pragmatic transfer as a function of learning context (EFL vs. ESL) and proficiency level. Hypothesis 3 states that there will be more pragmatic transfer in the EFL context than in the ESL context. The data in Table 6 confirm this hypothesis.

Table 6

Comparison of Interlanguage Patterns with the NL and TL Patterns

Stimulus Type*	Refuser Status	Situation #	EFL		ESL	
			JEJ-lo	JEJ-hi	JEA-lo	JEA-hi
Request	Higher	1	NL	NL	neither	both
	Equal	2	NL	both	neither	TL
	Lower	12**	TL	TL	TL	TL
Invitation	Higher	3**	neither	neither	neither	TL
	Equal	10	NL	NL	neither	neither
	Lower	4	neither	neither	neither	NL
Suggestion	Higher	8**	neither	neither	neither	TL
	Equal	5	NL	NL	NL	TL
	Lower	6	neither	neither	neither	neither
Offer	Higher	7	NL	NL	both	NL
	Equal	9	both	TL	TL	TL
	Lower	11	neither	neither	neither	TL

Note:

*Refusal of Request, Invitation, Suggestion, or Offer

**In these three items the patterns are quite similar in native Japanese and native English.

Key:

NL, TL = similar to NL or TL patterns
both = similar to both NL and TL patterns
neither = similar to neither NL nor TL patterns

Table 6 presents a holistic comparison of ordering patterns dominant in each proficiency group. In the table the resemblance between the interlanguage (IL) patterns and the NL or TL pattern is indicated by "NL" or "TL" respectively. In some cases the IL pattern is a "composite" (see Beebe, 1984), i.e., a merger of NL and TL variants. This dual resemblance is indicated by the word "both." In other cases the IL pattern is unlike either the native or the target pattern. This is indicated by the word "neither."

If we examine the data in Table 6, we see that transfer is more prevalent in the EFL groups (JEJs) than in the ESL groups (JEAs). Note that there are nine situations for the EFL groups which resembled NL patterns – i.e., where transfer was the dominant strategy. By comparison, there were only three situations for the ESL groups which resembled NL patterns. An equal number of situations reflected composites (indicated by "both") for the EFL and ESL contexts. Note that the greater amount of transfer in the EFL context cannot be explained away as a function of lower proficiency. Based on overall impression, the JEJ-lo group had higher proficiency than the JEA-lo group. In other words, the lower proficiency Japanese speaking English in America (JEA-lo's) were clearly the lowest proficiency group.

Hypothesis 4 is the most controversial hypothesis, and accordingly the data relating to it are the most difficult to interpret. The hypothesis states that there will be more NL transfer displayed by the higher proficiency learners than by the lower proficiency learners. From looking at Table 6, it can be seen that the hypothesis is weakly confirmed by the ESL data. It is even more weakly refuted by the EFL data. In the ESL situations the higher proficiency level group displayed NL transfer in two refusal situations, whereas the lower proficiency group displayed transfer in only one. As for the EFL groups, the situation was the reverse. The higher proficiency group displayed less transfer than the lower proficiency group.

More specifically, the higher proficiency group displayed NL transfer in only four situations, whereas for the lower proficiency group there were five situations where the pattern typically reflected NL transfer. Clearly no definitive support for the hypothesis can be claimed on the basis of these data. However, the authors would like to argue that the evidence favors confirmation of Hypothesis 4, namely, that higher proficiency learners transfer more than lower proficiency learners.

First of all, we would like to suggest that the expected proficiency difference in the EFL subjects (the JEJs) simply did not exist, or that it was so negligible as not to be apparent. Our original intention was to gather data from two very different proficiency groups by studying EFL graduate students versus EFL undergraduates in a Japanese university. We did in fact gather data from these two groups but were not able to ascertain a proficiency difference between them - at least not from our pragmatic data. It could be that pragmatic competence is not significantly affected by just a few years' difference in school in the EFL context. Or it could be that pragmatic competence in general is affected, but that something so conversational as refusals is not. In any case, we did not perceive a proficiency difference between the so-called JEJ-lo's and the JEJ-hi's. So the weakly disconfirming evidence from these groups does not seem convincing.

On the other hand, there is very clearly a real proficiency difference within the Japanese ESL students living in the United States. The undergraduate JEA-lo's were much lower in proficiency than the graduate JEA-hi's. As we have said, however, the confirming evidence from Table 6 is somewhat weak. This evidence is based primarily on the order and frequency of semantic formulas in refusals. We have not yet looked at the content and tone of the refusals. Turning now to this content analysis, we find additional evidence for Hypothesis 4 suggesting that transfer is indeed more prevalent

among the higher proficiency learners than among lower proficiency learners. We will examine only the ESL data in this regard since it is only in the ESL context that we are confident of having found a real proficiency difference.

One aspect of the content/tone of refusals that seemed to support our hypothesis was the level of directness used. In our analysis semantic formulas are divided into two categories: direct and indirect. The "direct" category consisted of "performative" (e.g., "I refuse"), "No," and "expressions of negative willingness/ability" (e.g., "I can't"). In this study we have found that direct expressions, especially "I can't," were used by the lower proficiency ESL group (JEA-lo) with a very high frequency. As indicated in Table 5, subjects in this group used direct expressions in an average of 6 out of 12 situations. On the other hand, subjects in the higher proficiency ESL speakers (JEA-hi) used direct expressions in an average of 3.7 out of 12 situations. The point is that the higher frequency of direct expressions among lower proficiency learners is not a function of NL transfer, but rather most probably a developmental stage where simpler, and also more direct, expressions are being used.

More important than the difference in frequency was the difference in tone (i.e., degree of directness) used by the two groups. The lower proficiency ESL group (JEA-lo) often used the expression of negative ability "I can't" accompanied by the expression of regret "I'm sorry," which, it seemed, was added in order to soften the directness of the refusal. The higher proficiency ESL group (JEA-hi) also used these expressions, but they seemed to have a wider range of expressions and more flexibility to adjust their level of directness according to different situations. For example, when refusing the boss's invitation to a party, one lower proficiency ESL speaker said briefly, "I'm very very sorry, I can't go." In the same situation, one higher proficiency ESL speaker gave the following more elaborate refusal. "I'm terribly sorry, but we

made up another plan for next Sunday long time ago. So I feel awfully sorry to say no to your wonderful invitation." The higher proficiency Japanese ESL group used a variety of expressions such as "I won't be able to," "I don't think I can," and "I must say no," as well as the commonplace "I can't." Similarly, it was found that the higher proficiency group frequently used a variety of intensifiers (e.g., "really," "awfully," "terribly," "truly," "deeply," and "extremely"). The overuse of such varied expressions reflects the learners' desire to soften the directness of their refusals. It also reflects the Japanese norm of avoiding direct expressions and sounding as polite as possible, especially when talking to a higher status interlocutor, like the boss.

The higher proficiency Japanese speaking English in America (JEA-hi) also reflect more transfer than the lower proficiency learners if we look at the formality of their tone. American native speakers typically refuse an invitation by starting out with a statement of positive feeling, such as "I'd love to. . ." Both the lower and higher proficiency learners made use of these statements. In fact, the frequency of such statements was about the same for the two groups. But the tone of the expressions was different. And the higher proficiency ESL speakers seemed to be more prone to transferring in a typically Japanese formal tone than the lower proficiency learners. Again, it may be that only the more advanced speakers have "the rope to hang themselves with," – i.e., the control over English vocabulary to express Japanese sentiments. In any case, the lower proficiency group (JEA-lo) used typical American expressions such as "I'm glad," "I'm happy," and "I'd like to." On the other hand, although the higher proficiency group also used such expressions, they often over-intensified their positive feelings, lending a formal tone. For example, in refusing the boss's invitation to a party, one highly proficient ESL speaker said, "I am very *delighted and honored* to be asked to attend the party, but. . ." When refusing the offer of a promo-

tion and raise, another subject said, "I feel *honored* to be given that offer but. . ." Saying one feels "honored" in the same situation was found to be quite common among the Japanese native group. Thus, it is evident that this usage reflects NL influence. And since it is the higher proficiency group that is using it, the level of NL transfer is higher for them than for the lower proficiency group who stick to the less formal American expressions, probably because they are simpler on the developmental continuum.

The high level of formality transferred in by the higher proficiency Japanese learners appeared in places other than the initial adjuncts of positive feeling, such as "I'm honored. . ." They also appeared in apologies and expressions of gratitude that were part of a full refusal. For example, higher proficiency ESL speakers favored expressions such as "I have to *apologize* for not being able to come to your party," "I really *appreciate* your offer," and even "I *deeply appreciate* your work." The lower proficiency learners never used such formal expressions although they were typical of the native Japanese patterns. Particularly the apology is instructive. Whereas American native speakers tend to say "I'm sorry" when apologizing, rather than using the performative, "I apologize," native Japanese use a performative very frequently. It is often transferred as the literal translation, "I apologize," but it is more properly translated idiomatically as "I'm sorry" in English. Thus, the data seem to show once again that the higher proficiency learners are transferring more than the lower proficiency learners in that their refusals use the formal tone found in native Japanese.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we have presented evidence that transfer exists in both the EFL and ESL contexts, and that native language influence is generally stronger in the EFL context.

We have also shown that transfer exists at both the lower and higher proficiency levels. Thus pragmatic transfer is pervasive – not limited to one phase of L2 learning. We have also been at pains to argue that transfer increases as the learner's proficiency increases, i.e., that transfer is greater among our higher proficiency learners than among lower proficiency learners. We did not obtain a discernible proficiency difference in our EFL data, so only the ESL data was considered in this regard. Analysis of the content or tone of the refusals suggested that there is some basis to our hypothesis: higher proficiency ESL learners were more subject to native language transfer than lower proficiency learners. We have suggested that their fluency gave them "the rope to hang themselves with." It was precisely their ease with English that allowed them to say what they wanted to say, and in several cases they wanted to express notions that seemed typically Japanese – for instance being "deeply honored" to receive a simple invitation.

We suspect that the evidence provided in this paper is just the tip of the iceberg. Studies are needed to investigate level of transfer (problematic as it is to measure) in relation to level of proficiency. As we suggested earlier, we anticipate a skewed bell curve for level of transfer against a horizontal axis of increased L2 proficiency. The peak of the curve would be expected to fall at higher proficiency levels than the peak of the curve for phonological or morpho-syntactic transfer. Similarly for the developmental curve of any one individual, we would expect phonological and morpho-syntactic transfer to rise to their peaks earlier than pragmatic transfer since pragmatic transfer requires more fluency to surface.

Our data have several limitations. For one thing, they are based on questionnaires; i.e., written role plays. Our natural spoken data are only available for native speakers of English (see Beebe & Cummings, 1985). Secondly, as mentioned, we did not have a proficiency difference in our EFL subjects. The third concern is that we had only two levels of L2 profi-

ciency. We would recommend that future studies have several levels. We suspect that our high proficiency ESL subjects (JEA-hi's) were simply too advanced to display the highest levels of proficiency starting with the least advanced students capable of understanding and responding to the refusal situations and leading all the way up to the near natives. This, we hypothesize, would lead to a bell curve in level of transfer.

One of the problems in interpreting our data is that there are multiple manifestations of transfer. For example, we may find no transfer in the order and frequency of formulas used, but there may still be a hard-to-quantify transfer in the tone of the refusal. Our higher proficiency ESL speakers had acquired most of the English refusal patterns in terms of order and frequency, but any native speaker could discern a foreign element in the tone of their refusals.

At the risk of making yet another clicheed call for further research, we would like to invite others to help us test out our hypothesis. We feel that the challenge of our hypothesis is just as important as the preliminary evidence itself.

Appendix A
Classification of Refusals

I. Direct
   A. Performative (e.g., "I refuse")
   B. Non-performative statement (e.g., "No," "I can't," "I won't")

II. Indirect
   A. Statement of regret (e.g., "I'm sorry," "I feel terrible")
   B. Wish (e.g., "I wish I could help you. . .")
   C. Excuse, reason, explanation
   D. Statement of alternative
   E. Condition for future or past acceptance (e.g., "If you had asked me earlier, I would have. . .")
   F. Promise (e.g., "I'll come next time")
   G. Statement of principle or philosophy
   H. Attempt to dissuade interlocutor (e.g., threat, guilt trip, criticism, let interlocutor off the hook, self defense)
   I. Acceptance which functions as a refusal (e.g., unspecific or indefinite reply, lack of enthusiasm)

J. Avoidance (e.g., non-verbal – silence, hesitation, do nothing, physical departure; verbal – topic switch, joke, hedging)

Adjuncts to refusals

1. Statement of positive opinion (e.g., "I'd love to. . .")
2. Statement of empathy (e.g., "I realize you are in a difficult situation")
3. Pause fillers (e.g., "uhh," "well," "uhm")
4. Gratitude/appreciation

References

Beebe, L. 1984. Myths about interlanguage phonology. In S. Eliasson (Ed.), *Theoretical issues in contrastive phonology*. Heidelberg: Julius Groos Verlag.

Beebe, L. (in press). Sociolinguistic transfer from the native language. Chapter 1 in L. Beebe, *The social psychological basis of second language acquisition*. Longman Inc. Series in Applied Linguistics and Language Study. London: Longman.

Beebe, L., Takahashi, T., & Uliss-Weltz, R. (in press). Pragmatic transfer in ESL refusals. In R. Scarcella, S. Krashen, & E. Andersen (Eds.), *On the development of communicative competence in a second language*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Beebe, L., & Cummings, M. 1985. Speech act performance: A function of the data collection procedure? Paper presented at TESOL '85. New York, NY, April 1985.

Blum-Kulka, S. 1982. Learning to say what you mean in a second language: A study of the speech act performance of learners of Hebrew as a second language. *Applied Linguistics*, 3(1).

Cohen, A., & Olshtain, E. 1981. Developing a measure of sociocultural competence: The case of apology. *Language Learning*, 31(1).

Eisenstein, M., & Bodman, J. 1986. I very appreciate: Expressions of gratitude by native and non-native speakers of American English. *Applied Linguistics*, 7(2).

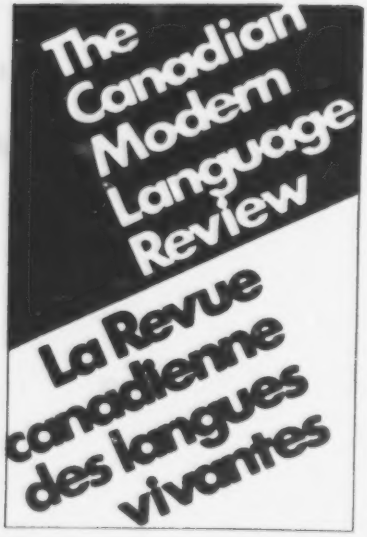
Hymes, D. 1972. Models of the interaction of language and social life. In J.J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Directions in sociolinguistics: The ethnography of communication*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Olstain, E. 1983. Sociocultural competence and language transfer: The case of apology. In S. Gass & L. Selinker (Eds.), *Language transfer in language learning*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Rubin, J. 1983. How to tell when someone is saying "no" revisited. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Taylor, B. 1975. The use of over generalization and transfer learning strategies by elementary and intermediate students in ESL. *Language Learning*, 25, 73-108.

Wolfson, N. 1983. Rules of speaking. In J.C. Richards & R.W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication*. London: Longman.



Anthony S. Mollica
Editor

Linguistic and pedagogical articles, book reviews, current advertisements and other material of interest to teachers of French, English, German, Italian and Spanish, as second languages at all levels of instruction as well as to teachers of Heritage languages.

Subscription rates:

☐ Individual $25.00 Sustaining $ 50.00 ☐
☐ Institutions $35.00 Patrons $100.00 ☐

(U.S.A. and Overseas Subscriptions in U.S. Funds)

Canada's Voice in Language Teaching and Learning

Founded in 1944.
Published regularly in October, January, March and May. Occasionally, a special supplementary issue is also published.
Cheques or money orders payable to *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Review canadienne des langues vivantes* should be sent to - Managing Editor, *CMLR/RCLV*, 237 Hellems Avenue, Welland, Ontario L3B 3B8 (Canada).
Sample copy of the journal will be sent on request.

- - - -

Short Article

ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE (EIL): SMITH'S PHILOSOPHY OF ENGLISH FOR INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Yukihiro Nakayama

Introduction

The term "International English" first came to be frequently used in Japan in the late 1960's when intercultural contacts dramatically increased. It was, however, only in the middle 1970's that scholars began to carry out academic research on International English from the viewpoint of "English as an International Language." This short article reviews the philosophy of *English as an International Language (EIL)* advocated by Larry E. Smith, a Research Associate at the East-West Center, Hawaii, and highlights some important published works in the field.

English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

Among the acronyms that have been created in English language education are: ESL, EFL, ESOL, ELT, EST, EAP, ESP. Of these the most common are ESL (English as a Second Language) and EFL (English as a Foreign Language), which are usually grouped together under the term ESOL (English to Speakers of Other Languages) or ELT (English Language Teaching).

Yukihiro Nakayama was formerly a Professional Associate at the East-West Center, Hawaii, where he conducted research on language for international communication. He is currently an Associate Professor of Sociolinguistics at Setsunan University in Osaka.

Marckwardt (1963: 25) states that when the term ESL is used, "the reference is usually to a situation where English becomes a language of instruction in the schools, as in the Philippines, or a lingua franca between speakers of widely diverse languages, as in India." Another type of ESL situation is observed in the USA. The overwhelming experience of the USA in teaching ESL "has been aimed at the linguistic and cultural assimilation into an English-language nation of indigenous groups and, more especially, of immigrants, having other languages as their mother tongue" (Strevens 1980: 92).

What is the concept of EFL? Marckwardt (1963: 25) states that EFL is "English taught as a school subject or on an adult level solely for the purpose of giving the student a foreign language competence which he may use in one of several ways – to read literature, to read technical works, to listen to the radio, to understand dialogue in the movies, to use the language for communication possibly with transient English or Americans." In short, English has been used for the purpose of absorbing the cultures of England and the USA.

English as an International Language (EIL) and English as an Auxiliary Language (EAL)

In their discussions together at the East-West Center, Marckwardt stated, in referring to the terms ESL and EFL, that he was "no longer satisfied with the terms and felt it was time we looked into the possibility of creating a new term which would more accurately reflect the present state of English language usage around the world" (Smith 1978: 5). In response Smith suggested *EIAL (English as an International Auxiliary Language) (EIL + EAL)*, (1976).

Smith (1976: 38) defined *EIL* operationally as English "which is used by people of different nations to commu-

nicate with one another," and wrote that "English is the most frequently used international language." On the other hand, he defined *EAL* operationally as English "which is used by nationals of a country for internal communication." and that "English also frequently serves this purpose."

In this paper Smith argued that "there is a single English language but many varieties" (38), and that "English can and should be de-nationalized" (41). His thesis is that we should explore the English language from the perspective of *EIAL*, not merely as ESL or EFL, largely an Anglo-American-dominated view of the language. He went so far as to say that "native speakers need as much help as non-natives when using English to interact internationally. There is no room for linguistic chauvinism" (1981a: 32).

Smith changed the acronym from *EIAL* (English as an International Auxiliary Language) to *EIIL* (English as an International and *Intra*national Language), but his thesis remained basically the same; his operational definition of English as an *Inter*national Language is English "which is used by people of different nations to communicate with one another," while English as an *Intra*national Language is English used by nationals of the same country for communication" (Smith 1978: 5; see Kachru and Quirk 1981).

English as an International Language (EIL)

Below are some of the distinctive features of EIIL which Smith instances, with special reference to *English as an International Language (EIL):* (1) The Purpose of Learning is international communication, (2) Medium of Communication is in spoken and written form, (3) Student Population is native and non-native speakers, (4) Language Interactions are between (a) native speakers of different nations, (b) native speakers and non-native speakers, and (c) non-native speakers of different nations, (5) Cultural Emphasis is on

cultures of specified countries, (6) Language Model is any "educated English," native or non-native, and (7) Performance Target is "intelligible English" and "appropriate English." (1976; 1978; 1981a and elsewhere).

In conclusion, Smith notes that the English language is now used most frequently as a medium of international communication, and advocates that native speakers as well as non-native speakers should be taught to interact effectively with one another. Noting that English is used for the following interactions: between (1) native speakers of different nations, (3) native speakers and non-native speakers, and (3) non-native speakers of different nations, the cultural emphasis should be placed on the cultures of specified countries in which the students are interested, or about which they have developed specific needs. The language model, the spoken and written text which is used in the classroom, can be any "educated English," either native or non-native, while the ultimate performance target should be intelligible and appropriate English.

Of particular interest in the references below may be the accounts of Smith's empirical research (see 1979; 1982ab; 1987b), edited academic texts (1981b, 1983) and his editorial contributions to the Journal, *World Englishes* (from 1985).

References

Kachru, B.B. and Quirk, R. 1981. Introduction. L.E. Smith (ed.), *English for Cross-Cultural Communication*. London: Macmillan.

Marckwardt, A.H. 1963. English as a second language and English as a foreign language. *PMLA, 78*(2): 25-28.

Smith, L.E. 1976. English as an international auxiliary language. *RELC Journal, 7*(2): 38-53. Also in Smith (1983): 1-5.

Smith, L.E. 1978. Some distinctive features of EIIL vs. ESOL in English language education. *Culture Learning Institute Report (East-West Center), 5*(3): 5-7 and 10-11. Also in Smith (1983): 13-20.

Smith, L.E. and Rafiqzad, K. 1979. English for cross-cultural communication: the question of intelligibility. *TESOL Quarterly, 13*(3): 371-380. Also in Smith (1983): 49-58.

Smith, L.E. 1981a. English as an international language: no room for

linguistic chauvinism. *Gaikokugo Kyoiku Kiyo (Nagoya Gakuin University), 3:* 27-32. Also in Smith (1983): 7-11.

Smith, L.E. (ed.). 1981b. *English for Cross-Cultural Communication.* London: Macmillan.

Smith, L.E. Campbell. D., Ekniyom, P. and Haque, A. 1982a. English in international settings: problems and their causes. *English World-Wide, 3*(1): 66-76. Also in Smith (1983): 35-47.

Smith, L.E. and Bisazza, J.A. 1982b. The comprehensibility of three varieties of English for college students in seven countries. *Language Learning, 32*(2): 259-269. Also in Smith (1983): 59-67.

Smith, L.E. (ed.). 1983. *Readings in English as an International Language.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Smith, L.E. 1984. A communicative approach to teaching English as an international language. *Cross Currents, 11*(1): 37-48.

Smith, L.E. and Kachru, B.B. (eds.). 1985. *World Englishes: Journal of English as an International and Intranational Language.* Oxford: Pergamon Press. (Formerly *World Language English.* Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1981-1984.)

Smith, L.E. and Nelson, C.L. 1985. International intelligibility of English: directions and resources. *World Englishes, 4*(3): 333-342.

Smith, L.E. 1987a. Cross-cultural understanding and English literatures from the Other Circles. *World Englishes, 5*(2-3): 121-128.

Smith, L.E. 1987b. Language spread and issues of intelligibility. Paper presented at the *Georgetown University Round Table,* April 14, 1987.

Strevens, P. (ed.). 1980. *Teaching English as an International Language.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

MLJ The Modern Language Journal

Founded: 1916
Editor: David P. Benseler
Dept. of German
Ohio State University
Columbus, OH 43210

. . . is recognized throughout the world as the outstanding foreign language/pedagogical research journal in the United States. This popular journal was founded in 1916 by the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations. Topics covered in MLJ include teaching strategies, bilingualism, applied linguistics, teaching of literature, study abroad, innovative foreign language programs, and developments in curriculum, teaching materials, and testing and evaluation.

ISSN 0026-7902

Published quarterly at The University of Wisconsin Press

Subscribe now, or recommend a subscription to your library. A detailed brochure will be sent upon request.

RATES
Individuals: $13 yr.
(must prepay)
Institutions: $30 yr.
Foreign subscribers add $3 yr.
for regular postage, or $12.50/yr.
for Airmail delivery.

REPLY TO
Journal Division
The University of Wisconsin Press
114 North Murray Street
Madison, Wisconsin 53715
USA
(608) 262-4952

DISCOURSE COMPETENCE: ESSENTIAL BUT NEGLECTED

Jack Barrow

Language teachers have long known that linguistic competence is not enough to enable students to communicate effectively; utterances must also conform to sociolinguistic rules of a given language and follow the discourse structure underlying the text. Discourse competence concerns the relation of sentences to text as well as the wider social context. Processing and producing large chunks of discourse, such as reading and writing essays or maintaining a conversation is the basis of discourse competence.

Discourse structure is determined by the constraints of the speech act which means that knowledge of social context is vital in interpreting a text. This background or prior knowledge is central in language learning. One way of representing the background knowledge used in the understanding of production of discourse is frame or schema theory (Brown *et al.*, 1983) which proposes that knowledge is stored in memory in data structures called *frames*, which represent stereotyped situations and may constitute the underlying discourse of texts.

This area of discourse is often neglected in language programs, maybe on the assumption that parts of it, being easily transferable, are already understood by students. The problem is, however, that much instruction and analysis in language courses still resides in the purely linguistic realm of phonol-

Jack Barrow teaches at Kobe City Fukiai High School and also at Setsunan and Otani Universities. He has a Teaching Credential in Language Development from the State of California and an M.Ed. from Temple University.

ogy and syntax with little concern being given to surrounding context. This suggests that students be taught using longer chunks of text, whether spoken or written, and traditional item analysis be subordinated to the text. In terms of teaching discourse, three general areas will be discussed: social context enrichment, sequencing practice, and pedagogical discourse.

1. Social Context Enrichment

In comprehension, the fewer contextual cues one has, the more one must rely upon linguistic cues to fathom the text. In other words, according to Cummins (1981), context-reduced learning results in slower, more cognitively demanding learning. In presenting the material, it is therefore beneficial to enrich the context. Here are some suggestions: a) Explain causal relations and motives. What caused something to happen and what were the intentions of those involved? b) Broaden students' understanding of the context by comparing and contrasting the L2 situation with their L1 experiences.

2. Sequencing Practice

Speech events have a beginning and an ending; while communicating, the participants must *negotiate* meaning in order to maintain the conversation.

Japanese students often feel very awkward when striking up a conversation and resort to personal questions too soon which can result in embarrassment and eventual breakdown. Accordingly, students should practice and rehearse non-personal opening gambits and the introduction of neutral topics.

Maintaining a topic can also be a very difficult task as it involves the complex interplay of various basic functions such

as stating and asking for opinions; clarifying; encouraging; requesting information; going back to the previous topic; closing or changing a topic (see the Conversation Maintenance Matrix).

It is my contention that students should practice these basic functions requiring them to maintain conversation within appropriate time spans, otherwise discourse competence will not develop.

Conversation Maintenance Practice

Greetings (Socializing)

Introducing a topic
(eye contact, ah, say)

Giving or getting info/advice/cooperation
Wh/question
Could/would/should . . .
I/you . . .
Is/are . . .

Stating or asking: opinion/emotion
Wh/question
Have/do you . . .
I/you . . .
This is/is this

Clarifying
Huh?
Wajyusay?
Do you mean . . .
Wh/question

Responding or encouraging
Uh huh
You're kidding
Oh yeah
That's (awesome)

Adding information
Yeah, and . . .
I know? also . . .
And then . . .
Dijyunodat . . .

Ending or changing a topic
Wh/question
When I . . .
HeckifIno

Sticking to a topic
Wait, wait!
That's different
That's not the point

Going back to a previous topic
Like I said before,
Do you remember . .
Before, you said . . .

Closing a conversation
Well, it's time to go
I've got to . . .
Give you a call
Take it easy
Don't do anything I wouldn't do

Note: These functions are interlinking as in a matrix.

3. Pedagogical Discourse

A commonly used technique in teaching is to break down a speech event into functions, practice each one, and then put it back together in linear fashion. Many notional-functional texts use this method. However, the discourse is poorly reassembled again in many of the texts and it may be necessary for the teacher to provide numerous role-playing situations which tie all the previously practiced functions back together. Often, a lack of time prevents the students from internalizing the functions entirely, so textbook writers resort to 'reminders' and 'games' in which students fill in forms and schedules. Actually, the students need a variety of situation practices, a kind of 'discourse drill', in which discourse patterns are practiced repeatedly and in various combinations. Also, as previously mentioned, communication involves the complex interplay of many functions. 'Discourse drills' are needed to teach the interlinking of various functions of language in order to develop the ability to maintain a conversation.

In composition, there is a similar situation: a very complex set of items which are time consuming to teach and learn. Just as in conversation, most teaching is done in a linear fashion, presenting highly simplified and structured models to be read and analyzed, and then mimicked, enabling students of differing abilities to perform satisfactorily. However, in many cases, a text containing only one style of writing, descriptive for example, does not occur. Just as in speaking, writing requires a myriad of styles, modes of development, support, and devices. (See Composition Matrix)

We need to increase students' awareness of others' desires, knowledge, expectations, and message. This can be done by considering reader-based coherence, that is, the effective interaction between reader and discourse.

A General Matrix for Composition

Narrative	**Descriptive**
– tells the story of events	– commonly from general to spec.
– usually chronological	– reader sees what writer describes
– purpose in mind; details selected	– spatial order
Analytical	**Argumentation**
– identifies features	– gives an opinion
– classifies in terms of them	– persuades using reasons/exam.
– judges whether similar/different	– info often arranged in terms of importance

Development: Chronological, Process, Extended Definition, Comparison/Contrast, Classification, Cause/Effect, Spatial

Support: Personal experience, facts, physical description, example, documents, statistics, authoritative sources

Devices: Modifiers, Metaphor, Simile, Personification, Definition, Documentation, Coherence devices: key words and phrases, pronoun referents, paragraph hooks, transitions

General Concepts: general/specific, topic/support, abstract/concrete, deductive/inductive, introduction (thesis)/body/conclusion

Common Approaches:

- paragraph → essay
- narrative → descriptive → expository → research paper
- personal writing → business/academic writing
- reading/analysis of model → selection of topic → prewriting organization (brainstorming) → purpose, thesis → outlining → first draft → analysis/revision

References

Brown, G. and Yule, G. 1983. *Discourse Analysis.* London: Cambridge University Press.

Cummins, J. 1981. The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework.* Sacramento: California Department of Education.

Johns, A.M. Coherence and academic writing: some definitions and suggestions for teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(2), June 1986.

USING THE TOEFL AT A JAPANESE UNIVERSITY

George H. Isted

The Problem

This paper discusses a program initiated at the International Buddhist University of Shitennoji Gakuen in Osaka, Japan. As might be judged from the name of our university, IBU aims at educating students to become international citizens, and a pillar to attaining this aim is the English language program. However, as might also be assumed from the name of our university, all students are not necessarily interested in studying English. Here, I would like to discuss a program begun to help realize the university's goal aimed at non-English major students; specifically students majoring in Buddhism, Japanese Studies, Education, Arabic Studies, and Sociology.

The first problem in starting an intensive English program was the marked lack of interest in English. This comes from several factors, including the loss of interest in English during prior educational experiences, being worn out from the extensive preparation in general, and a feeling on the part of students that English will not be of use to them in their future careers. We also found a general tendency for students to have no specific short range goal after passing their entrance examinations, leading to a general lack of interest in their

George Isted received his M.A. in Applied Linguistics from the University of South Carolina and has been actively working in the EFL field for over 15 years. He is the author of numerous texts and teaching materials directed at the Japanese student. He is currently Associate Professor in the Department of English and American Studies of the International Buddhist University in Osaka.

studies, be they English or other subjects. In addition to student motivation problems, it was also apparent that there was no core to the English curriculum with some teachers teaching simplified high school level readers while others were teaching original Shakespeare works.

With these problems in mind, it was proposed that a standardized test be integrated into the curriculum. This standardized test could be seen as providing a short range goal for the students and a focus for their studies. It would also provide a centralized goal for the English program as a whole, encouraging teachers to teach towards a common objective. Furthermore, successful completion of the examination would give the students a valuable credential which might be useful when they set out to look for a job. Finally, the program would give the university a public relations tool by which to attract better quality students, allowing for an upgrading of the university's image as a whole.

The TOEFL

After considering the alternatives, including the TOEFL, TOEIC, STEP (Eiken), JACET, AREALS, Cambridge and Michigan tests, it was decided to employ the TOEFL as it is internationally recognized and could provide successful students with a useful credential as well as an incentive for further study abroad. Moreover, out of all the tests, the TOEFL seemed to be academically the best balanced. The structure of the TOEFL Test is shown below.

Table 1

Section I –	**Listening**
Part A	Short statements (20 questions)
Part B	Short conversations (15 questions)
Part C	Mini-talks and long conversations (15 questions)

Section II – Structure
- Part A: Identifying correct structures (15 questions)
- Part B: Error identification (25 questions)

Section III – Vocabulary and Reading
- Part A: Synonyms (30 questions)
- Part B: Reading comprehension (30 questions)

Section IV – Essay

An additional consideration was that the entire test could be administered in a single university class period of 90-100 minutes. Finally, there are numerous practice tests commercially available. These two points mean that an intensive incentive testing program could easily be set up and operated within the normal school schedule.

Scoring is based on a 700 point scale, with a base score of 200 points, derived by averaging a converted score from each section. The essays are graded on a scale of 1-7 and are not included in the main TOEFL score.

Although some overseas institutions will give provisional acceptance to foreign students with a score of 400 points, 450 points seems to be the standard minimum score for many U.S. colleges and universities, with 500 being the minimum for most. Only a few schools and graduate schools require more than 500 points. IBU therefore, set a final program goal of 500 points, expecting the students to attain at least 400 points by the end of their two year general education program, thus providing all students with the minimum credentials necessary for study in the United States from their junior year. Accordingly, the university allotted one class in the second year of the program specifically for TOEFL preparation.

Results

The program was begun by administering a mock TOEFL

examination in the first week of class, both to check the students' level and to give them a starting point with relation to their goal. The results showed an average class score of a mere 390, with only a few students scoring over 400 points. Over a three-year period, the test results of 2,370 students were analyzed and we found that the average increase in their overall test scores was to between 410 and 420, depending on major, with many students scoring above the 450 mark.

A more detailed analysis was made to see how students fared on each section of the test. The results are shown below.

Table 2

Listening Part A	20% correct
Listening Part B	27% correct
Listening Part C	27% correct
Structure Part A	40% correct
Structure Part B	32% correct
Vocabulary	33% correct
Reading Comprehension	33% correct
Essay	Not administered

The overall averages are shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Listening	390	28% correct
Structure	448	35% correct
Reading	400	33% correct

Analysis

As can be seen from the percentages of correct answers, the TOEFL proved far too difficult for our students, even though they were able to obtain adequate scores overall. An analysis of these scores and the question types they represent seems to indicate that the Japanese education system

fails to prepare students adequately to perform in many of these areas:

a. Listening for meaning
b. Listening to natural conversation (including reduced pronunciation, etc.)
c. Identification of speakers or locations of conversations
d. Error identification
e. Synonyms
f. Reading for meaning
g. Analysis of a reading passage
h. Self expression
i. Organizational strategies

Students seemed able to perform satisfactorily only in identification of correct grammatical structures. These aspects of language clearly need to be embodied in our curriculum if we are to help the students perform well on the TOEFL examination.

Further Considerations

In designing our curriculum, we looked at the many TOEFL preparation books on the market and were disappointed to find that most of them are mere collections of practice tests. Those that claim to be workbooks seem to stress grammar, the only aspect that is not included in the list above.

Conclusion

Using the TOEFL at IBU with non-English major students has been generally successful in consolidating the English program as a whole, improving student motivation, and providing a challenge. I believe that the motivation factor can best be encouraged by beginning with a TOEFL goal of, say 400 points, and raising the goal semester by semester

until a satisfactory level of, say 450, is achieved. However, there still remains much to be done in the field of creating an adequate curriculum and providing materials to further improve the benefits already attained.

References

Broderick, Vincent and Isted, George. *The Best TOEFL Workbook*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, Massachusetts. Pilot version published by ELE, Osaka. 1985.

Caroll, J.B. Fundamental Considerations in Testing for English Language Proficiency for Foreign Students. *Teaching English as a Second Language: A Book of Readings*. McGraw Hill, New York. 1961.

Carlson, Sybil B. Relationship of Admission Test Scores to Writing Performance of Native and Nonnative Speakers of English *TOEFL Research Reports No. 19*. Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J. 1985.

Clark, J.L.D. *Foreign Language Testing: Theory and Practice*. Center for Curriculum Development, Philadelphia. 1972.

Davy, Karen and Noren, Joy. *TOEFL Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary Workbook*. Arco Publishing Company, New York. 1983.

Hale, G.A. and Hinofotis, F.B. *New Directions in English Language Testing*. Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J. 1981, 1983.

Jenkins-Murphy, Andrew. *How to Prepare for the Test of English as a Foreign Language*. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, New York. 1981.

Jones, R.L. Testing: A Vital Connection, in J.K. Phillips (Ed.) *The Language Connection: From the Classroom to the World*. National Textbook Company, Skokie, Ill. 1977.

King, Carol and Stanley, Nancy. *Building Skills for the TOEFL*. Thomas Nelson and Sons, Surrey, England. 1983.

Lim, Phillis and Kurtin, Mary *TOEFL Grammar Workbook*. Arco Publishing Company, New York. 1982.

Lougheed, Lin. *Prentice Hall TOEFL Prep Book*. Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey. 1986.

Mason, Victor. *Practice Tests for the TOEFL*. Thomas Nelson and Sons, Surrey, England. 1983.

Morita, Katsuyuki. *A Systematic Guide to TOEFL*. Aratake Shuppan, Tokyo, Japan. 1984.

Morita Katsuyuki. *Practice Tests for the TOEFL*. Aratake Shuppan, Tokyo, Japan. 1984.

Oller, J.W. Jr. Explaining the Reliable Variance in Tests: The Validation Problem, in E. Briere and F. Hinofotis (Ed.) *Concepts in Language Testing: Some Recent Studies*. TESOL, Washington D.C. 1979 p. 61-74.

Ostler, S.E. A Survey of Academic Skills in the Low-Level ESL Class. *TESOL Quarterly*, 11, p. 489-502. 1981.

Otomo, Kenji and Stricherz, Gregory. *TOEFL Listening Comprehension*. Goken. Tokyo, Japan. 1983.

Pearson, C.R. Advanced Academic Skills in the Low-Level ESL Class. *TESOL Quarterly*, 15, p. 413-423. 1981.

Pike, L.W. An Evaluation of Alternative Item Formats for Testing English as a Foreign Language, *TOEFL Research Report No. 2*. Educational Testing Service, Princeton. N.J. 1979.

Pyle, Michael and Munoz, Mary. *Cliffs TOEFL Preparation Guide*. Cliffs Notes, Lincoln, Nebraska 1986.

Sharp, Pamela. *Barron's How to Prepare for the TOEFL*. Barron's Educational Series, Inc. Woodbury, New York. 1979.

Shaughnessy, M.P. *Errors and Expectations*. Oxford University Press, New York. 1977.

Stanley, Nancy. *The Best TOEFL Test Book*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, Massachusetts. 1984.

Stricherz, Gregory and Ogasawara, Linju. *TOEFL: Structure and Written Expression, Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary*. Goken, Tokyo, Japan. 1980.

Test of English as a Foreign Language, *TOEFL Test Score Manual*. Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J. 1977.

THE TEAM TEACHING METHOD: UTILIZING JAPANESE AND FOREIGN INSTRUCTORS EFFECTIVELY

Soo-im Lee (Reiko Takeo)

Introduction

The ideal teacher of English in Japan would be bilingual and understand both Japanese culture and the culture of the target language. If a teacher had these two qualities, the highest level of communication could be reached. However, in reality, such teachers are rare. For example, Japanese instructors often have difficulties producing natural pronunciation and intonation, giving examples of idiomatic expressions and explaining the underlying meaning of certain phrases. Although there are many well-trained native speaker English instructors in Japan, it has been found that many schools are employing teachers who have had no prior experience or training in ESL/EFL and often have only a limited knowledge of English grammar. In addition, many foreign intructors are unable to help a Japanese student, who is intimidated by the presence of a foreigner, feel relaxed.

Team Teaching

Using these observations on the state of English teaching in Japan and combining the benefits and strengths of having both foreign and bilingual Japanese instructors, we have developed an effective method of team teaching. Each session is com-

Soo-im Lee graduated from Boston State College in 1978, receiving an M.A. in Bilingual Education. She also received a certificate in TESL from UCLA in 1976. She is currently director at NCB Language Institue in Osaka.

posed of two fifty-minute classes with no more than six students in each session; a Japanese instructor teaches the first fifty minutes and is followed by a native speaker in the second half. During the ten-minute break between classes the Japanese instructor briefs the native speaking instructor on the materials covered in the textbook and teacher's manual, and ways of dealing with specific difficulties are discussed.

With team teaching the Japanese and foreign teachers use the same materials, but they each focus on different aspects of teaching English. The Japanese instructors give explanations of the grammatical points in the lesson, provide translation and prepare the students for the next hour with the native speaker. A better prepared student will be more comfortable with the native speaker instructor, since the same material will be covered. In the second hour the foreign instructor can focus on specific, identified difficulties as well as working on students' intonation, pronunciation and use of expressions. Also, it is during this part of the class that the students can experience communicating across cultural lines.

The Benefits of Utilizing Japanese Teachers

It is generally recognized that the skills of native speaker teachers, such as their fluent verbal ability and the fact that they can motivate the Japanese students to learn English, are valuable to English schools in Japan. It has been our experience, however, that Japanese instructors are equally important for an effective English program. As mentioned earlier, Japanese students tend to become shy and withdrawn in the presence of foreign teachers and often lack experience in exchanging ideas or opinions. With the Japanese teacher's help, the students can participate in the foreign teacher's class with less tension and more confidence. Japanese teachers can help their students to go beyond typical, mechanical responses to more creative and original interaction. We have

found that Japanese instructors are often able to help Japanese much more effectively by using a three-way attack strategy: role play breakdown, paraphrasing, and useful expressions.

The first technique involves breaking down everyday conversation situations into a series of steps. For example, in the case of a telephone conversation, the teacher can divide the situation into four steps and each part can then be studied systematically and in detail. Using the telephone call as an example, the steps would be: (1) asking for the person he would like to talk with, (2) starting the conversation, (3) explaining the reason for calling, and (4) ending the conversation. Possible expressions for each stage are taught by the instructor. We have found that students learning these procedures in a role play situation find it easier to develop and continue their conversations.

The second technique, paraphrasing, is used when a student is having difficulty translating a word or expression into English. It is best for the students if the Japanese teachers avoid giving translations too quickly. Instead, they teach the students to paraphrase or re-express the concept using simpler, alternative vocabulary. This technique is also appropriate for the student who is trying to express complex ideas with a limited knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary. For example, if the student is trying to say *futsukayoi* (hangover) and he doesn't know the word in English, the Japanese teacher can help the student paraphrase the word. The paraphrased word could be broken up into a couple of sentences such as "I drank too much sake last night. I feel sick now."

The third technique employed by the Japanese teachers is to emphasize expressions that are appropriate to classroom situations. For example, during the lessons the Japanese instructor might find repetition of the following expressions useful: (1) "I beg your pardon," (2) "Would you please repeat that question?," (3) "You speak too quickly for me, would

you slow down a bit?," (4) "I don't understand a word in your sentence." "What is . . .?," (5) "Would you tell me a similar word to . . ." If the students use these expressions skillfully, it should help them towards autonomy in language learning.

Conclusions

Most conversation schools tend to rely too heavily on their foreign teachers' verbal ability. While foreign teachers are very useful for teaching pronunciation, intonation and expressions, their greatest contribution is to increase their students' motivation to learn and to use English. Native speaker teachers are essential for English instruction in Japan, however the existence of good bilingual Japanese teachers should not be ignored. The integration of these two types of teachers can greatly facilitate any English program in Japan.

THE USE OF A RADIO ENGLISH PROGRAMME TO INCREASE STUDENTS' LISTENING TIME

Hisao Nishijima

Introduction

Every EFL teacher in Japan knows that the majority of Japanese students learning English are generally not exposed to enough spoken English. What can we teachers do to increase their listening time? I suggest that using a radio English conversation programme is probably one of the best and easiest ways of meeting this need. The programme I have in mind is NHK's 'Radio English Conversation' (英語会話) and I would recommend this programme for the following reasons. Firstly, conversations contained in the monthly textbook are 'natural' in that they are carried out at natural speed and are not based on grammatical points unlike the other NHK radio English programmes. (The students I teach have had at least six years of English education and most of them are rather tired of going through English grammar again.) Secondly, textbooks are easily obtained even at a small bookshop and they cost only 200 yen. When some comprehension difficulties arise, the students can always refer to the written text. Thirdly, they do not need a special short wave radio, just an ordinary radio is good enough to receive the programme. Fourthly, the programme is broadcast three times a day from Monday to Saturday, lasting fifteen minutes.

In the past, little consideration has been given to the use

Hisao Nishijima received his B.A. in Linguistics from York University (U.K.) and his M.A. in Linguistics from Kobe City University of Foreign Studies. He currently teaches at Kobe YMCA and Hinomoto Junior College.

of a radio programme for students' English studies partly because ways of using the programme are usually left to the students to decide. The teacher who tells the students to listen to the programme does not always try to find out whether the students are really listening to it, how they are listening, or how much they are getting out of the programme if they do.

I would like to make some suggestions which students should keep in mind when they are working with the programme and some activities based on the programme that the teacher can use in class. The students need some incentives to continue listening. To help them listen to the programme continuously, the extent of their understanding and their progress must be constantly monitored in class.

Some Tips on Listening to the Programme at Home

A. Comprehension

1) Record the programme. Listen to the day's dialogue with the textbook closed. Do the same a few more times to see if your understanding of the dialogue improves.

2) When you encounter unknown words, you should first try to guess the meaning of them. Then you can proceed to look at the textbook or a dictionary. If there is no sign of improvement in understanding the conversation, you should look at the part of the text which is causing comprehension problems and should find which words or expressions are the problem. Repeat 2) and 3) several times until you grasp the general meaning of the dialogue.

B. Other Activities. Do one or more of the practices below *only after* you have grasped the general meaning of the dialogue.

1) a. Firstly, repeat after the native speakers (NSs) with the book open. Repeat the dialogue mentally. Secondly, repeat after them silently forming the words with

your mouth. Thirdly, repeat aloud after them.

b. Close the book and repeat after the NSs. If the students do not need the above exercise, they can omit it, or the order of the two exercises can be reversed.

c. Cover the left hand side of the English text and try to say the rest. Progressively cover the text as you memorize more.

d. Look at the Japanese sentences on the right hand side of the text and translate them back into English.

e. Check the accuracy of your pronunciation and intonation of the dialogue by saying the sentences ahead of the NSs, with the book closed and comparing yourself with the NS model.

f. Read the Japanese part and record it on cassette tape. While listening to it, interpret it into English, either consecutively or simultaneously.

2) Dictation

a. Transcribe the day's skit with the book closed, then check it.

b. Transcribe the small talk at the beginning and end of the programme.

3) Try to substitute as many words as possible using sentences in the day's skit as a basis.

4) Make dialogues using the day's key sentence or one of the expressions learned from the day's programme.

Activities Based on the Day's Dialogue

1) *Filling out blanks*

Using a cloze test format, have students fill out blanks while listening. Only the first short responses of each speaker's utterance can be made blank as a variation of this exercise. Japanese students often fall silent partly because of difficulties in finding the first short phrases. In this task students are required to choose appropriate replies from a list.

2) *Use of Communication Strategies (CSs)*

The students role-play the dialogue. When they encounter problems of any kind, as a result of inattention or lack of understanding, they should try to solve them by making use of Css, for example, asking the other partner to repeat the part which seems to be causing him problems; asking him to rephrase a particular word; asking him to say a particular sentence in a different way; asking for the pronunciation or spelling of a word or phrase; paraphrasing; exemplification. Even if they have listened to the programme and know the meanings of the words in the text, they can always practice using various CSs to check their partner's knowledge.

As a variation, cut out the day's dialogue and paste each speaker's part on a piece of paper. Place all the cards of Speaker A's utterances with the first sentence at the top of the stack and do the same with the other speaker's cards. Working in pairs, students are encouraged to use CSs as they read out the dialogue.

3) *Rearrangement*

Cut out all the speakers' parts and stick each of them on a piece of paper. Mix them up. Groups of two or three students try to arrange them in the right order.

As a variation, the above pieces of paper can be mixed with sentences taken out of another days' skit to make the practice more difficult.

4) *Chain story*

Groups of three or more make up a story, using the words, mainly content words or expressions in the day's skit. A group leader tells the story to the class. This practice can be done by the whole class. The teacher gives a different word taken out of the day's dialogue to each student. The class creates sentences that would form one story.

5) *More sentences*

Divide the class into two teams. The teacher gives each

team one word from the day's skit. Their task is to create as many sentences as possible, using the given item. They are given a time-limit, for example, five minutes. After the time is up, a student from each team reads out their sentences aloud. The teacher checks them for grammaticality. The team which has the most new sentences wins the game.

6) *Dictation check*

Outside the class the students transcribe the small talk at the beginning or end of the programme or the brief outline of the day's skit. They check each other's dictation in class. The teacher writes down on the board the words they have picked up. The words are written in such a way that their positions show the places where they are supposed to be when the whole transcription is written out.

7) *Creation of new sentences*

One student produces a sentence using one of the words or expressions and whispers it to his neighbour. Then the neighbour puts it into Japanese and gives it to the person sitting next to him. It follows this pattern up to the last person (Eng → Jp → Eng → . . . . Jp → Eng). If the last person gets a Japanese sentence, he translates it into English. They compare the first student's sentence with the last one's to see how similar or distorted it is.

8) *Setting up new contexts*

Using the key sentence of the day's skit, have the students think of other contexts relevant to their experience in which the key sentence of the day's skit can be used. For example, ask your students to invent different situations to which the expression "It seems like an easy way out" (from the skit broadcast on November 10, 1986) applies. A student may say, for example, "You were late for class because you slept in. But you say to the teacher that you got stuck in the lift and had to call someone for help."

9) *Follow-up dialogues*

The teacher invents a situation related to part of the programme's conversation. For example, in the Nov. 12 skit Mitsuo's bike is missing, so a situation like the one below can be created. For example, "Mitsuo goes to the police and gives the registration number to them. At the police station he describes his bike." Groups of students make up dialogues based on the given situation.

Reference

NHK Radio *Eigokaiwa* (English Conversation), November Issue, 1986

TEXT, CONTEXT, AND LANGUAGE TEACHING: A SYSTEMIC-FUNCTIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Peter H. Ragan

Introduction

When we discuss features of language for purposes of communicative language teaching (CLT), the eclectic but traditional model of language we employ limits us to a concern with form. The widely received dichotomy that holds between form and function, usage and use, accuracy and fluency and similar pairs of supposedly polar opposites (cf. Widdowson, 1978; Rodgers, 1983; Raimes, 1983; Brumfit, 1984) is evidence for the difficulty language teachers have in relating the wording of text to the communicative context on which it is dependent. This is a consequence of the misconception that the form of a text cannot be related systematically to the context in which it is used.

A more useful model for the description of language for CLT is available. The systemic-functional model developed by M.A.K. Halliday (1985a, 1985b, 1985c) allows us to relate the context in which language is used to the text which operates in the context. Text is the combination of grammatical and lexical features which we can refer to as *wording*. In this abridgement of my presentation at JALT '86 for the colloquium on 'Learning Spoken and Written Language', I wish to introduce the systemic-functional model (SFM) and briefly consider some insights it provides into the nature of language in use.

Peter H. Ragan teaches writing and business communication to science students at the National University of Singapore. He has just completed a large-scale investigation of the application of systemic linguistics to task-based language learning.

The Bridging Role of SFM

CLT is commonly associated with functions, use, and fluency. Meaningful and appropriate verbal communication, however, relies on a successful encoding of language, which generally leads to a concern with form, usage, and accuracy.

This concern is the basis for the self-limiting attempts in many CLT materials to link wording to functions, which are interpreted after Halliday's original conception of functions (1973) as the uses to which language is put. Examples of this include *agreeing* and *disagreeing, classifying, comparing*, and the like.

Such functions are typically linked semantically but arbitrarily to wording. For example, in one popular writing textbook (McKay and Rosenthal, 1980) students learn to encode the function *analysis* for scientific writing by using the passive voice and for describing location by using the vocabulary of spatial relationship.

Such presentations are useful but are ultimately frustrated by the multitude of purposes for which language is used *and* by the unsystematic manner in which form has been related to function. The SFM resolves this impasse by interpreting functional variation not just in *register* – variation in the use of language – but also in *lexicogrammar* – the coding of language. It incorporates two concurrent interpretations of function: function as the use to which language is put in context, and function as the reflection of that use in the wording of text. This dual interpretation facilitates the relation of context and text which has otherwise eluded CLT.

We commonly experience the evidence for this relation between wording and successful communication of meaning using language in particular contexts. It is generally not difficult to recognize the variety of texts we encounter as belonging to particular contexts. Conversely, in a familiar context we can normally predict the kind of text that will

be produced.

This is simply demonstrated: give your students a few lines of the transcription of a conversation between a doctor and the patient she is examining and ask them what the context is. Alternatively, have them write or act out the possible exchange between a shopkeeper and a customer seeking a particular product. This relation between context and text is most apparent in language which is highly contextualized but operates in spoken and written modes encompassing different genres and purposes, including academic discourse.

How does the SFM describe context and text?

A situational context can be described in terms of what is taking place, or *field*; in which language plays a part; *mode* – what part, written or spoken, the language is playing in this activity; *tenor* – who is taking part and the relationship between them; and *purpose* – what language is being used to accomplish.

The SFM describes the wording of spoken and written texts as well as the situational context. Wording is linguistically described as encoding three kinds of meaning, referred to as *meta-functions*. The three kinds of meaning are *textual, interpersonal,* and *ideational*. Textual meaning is the message focus of the clause, encoded as thematic structure. Interpersonal meaning is the encoding of exchange in the clause as mood structure. Ideational meaning is the representation of reality in the sense of content, encoded as transitivity structure.

They are called meta-functions because they form the basis for the semantic organization of all natural languages. They are derived from systems of choices available in the language code and are semantically related to the uses to which language is put in situational contexts. They occur simultaneously in text, that is, the meaning of text is derived from the encoding of all three of these structures at the same time.

Proceduralism in Action

The text–context relationship can be illustrated with an example of the procedural register. A set of instructions is highly contextualized and readily exemplifies this relation as such text often involves using language to direct action within some environment.

I have involved university students in Singapore in a task-based communicative language learning activity using procedural texts. They communicate sets of instructions to each other for the purpose of constructing a design using coloured, wooden blocks. Here are two clauses taken from the set of instructions which initiates one such activity that illustrates the functional nature of wording.

Figure 1: An Analysis of Wording in Two Clauses

1. *This design will have four sides.*

Theme	Rheme			(TEXTUAL)
Mood		Residue		(INTERPERSONAL)
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	
participant	process		participant	(IDEATIONAL)

2. *Line up the red block against the right side of the white block.*

Theme	Rheme		(TEXTUAL)
Residue			(INTERPERSONAL)
Predicator	Complement	Adjunct	
process	participant	circumstance	(IDEATIONAL)

Textual meaning is encoded through thematic structure as the MESSAGE focus of the clause – the Theme is that part of the clause which encodes what the speaker/writer wants to tell the listener/reader. In the first example, the Theme is the nominal group *this design*. In the imperative clause, it encodes

what the speaker or writer wants you to do. Thus in the second example, the Theme is the imperative verbal group *line up*. Theme is realized as the first ideational element of the clause. In terms of grammatical classes, Themes may be encoded as nominal groups, prepositional phrases, adverbials, and imperative verbal groups.

Interpersonal meaning is realized through mood structure as EXCHANGE between speaker/writer and listener/reader. This is the encoding of the four primary speech functions of offer, command, statement, and question. The Mood function is encoded as Subjects and Finites (such as *did, can,* and *will,* the simple past and present of *be* and *have,* or an element fused with a Predicator such as *goes*). This is where polarity (yes-no) and modality (the intermediate degrees between the positive and negative poles) are found.

In the first example above, we have a statement with the Mood function encoded as Subject and Finite – *this design will.* The second example is a command whose mood structure is encoded as the Residue function only, comprising a Predicator, Complement and Adjunct.

Ideational meaning is realized through transitivity structure as the REPRESENTATION of reality. This is what is usually understood as content. It encodes process – what is going on – as verbal groups, participants in the process as nominal groups, and circumstances associated with the process as adverbial groups and prepositional phrases.

In the first example there are two participants, *this design* and *four blocks,* and the process *will have.* In the second example there is the process *line up,* a participant *the red block,* and the circumstance *against the right side of the white block.*

Now let's link text and context by analyzing only Themes in this set of intructions, which comprises 25 sentences and leads to the construction of a rectangular design using 6 coloured blocks.

Figure 2: A Set of Instructions

(1) You are going to make a design using coloured blocks.
(2) This design will have four sides.
(3) The opposite sides will be equal in length.
(4) Take one red and one white block.
(5) Put their long sides together so that they match up evenly.
(6) Line up the red block against the right side of the white block.
(7) Place them flat in the middle of the table with their short sides closest to you.
(8) Take a black block from the remaining unused blocks.
(9) Put one of its long sides against the sides of the white and red blocks closest to you.
(10) Take another white block from the unused blocks.
(11) Place one of its long sides against the side of the black block closest to you.
(12) Now take the remaining black block.
(13) Line up one of its long sides against the right side of the red block in your design.
(14) Now take the last block, which is yellow.
(15) Place it in the open right corner of your design.
(16) One of its long sides should be placed against the short sides of a black and a white block.
(17) Its short side farthest from you should be up against the short side of a black block.
(18) Now let's check your design.
(19) We will start from the farthest left corner of the design and proceed to the right.
(20) The three blocks, in order, are white, red,and black.
(21) The remaining three blocks are, from left to right, black over white, and then yellow.
(22) Together, these six blocks form a design with four sides.
(23) Its longest side is the length of two blocks.
(24) Its shortest side is the width of three blocks.
(25) The design is a red, white, black and yellow rectangle.

When the Themes of this text are grouped together according to the ideational topics they refer to, some very interesting patterns emerge. These lead us back to the context in which this text is found. We can identify four topics for the Themes

of the finite clauses in these 25 sentences: the topics of reader/writer, procedure, blocks, and design.

Figure 3: Topical Themes in the Set of Instructions

Reader/ Writer	Procedure	Blocks	Design
1. you			2. this design
			3. the opp. side
	4. take		
	5. put		
	6. line up		
	7. place		
	8. take		
	9. put		
	10. take		
	11. place		
	13. line up		
	14. take	14a. which	
	15. place		
		16. one of its long sides	
		17. its short side	
18. let's			
19. we			
		20. the three blocks	
		21. the rem. three blocks	
			22. together
			23. its longest side
			24. its shortest side
			25. the design

First of all, this pattern of Themes reveals the method of development of the text. There is an orientation section where the message focus is on the reader and the design as a whole in sentences 1–3. Next comes the mandatory procedural section: the grouping of procedural Themes as imperative process in sentences 4–15, and references to blocks in sentences 14, 16 and 17 in expansion of preceding procedure clauses. The com-

pletion of the instructions on how to place the 6 blocks occurs in sentence 17 and is followed by a recapitulation section where the message focus is on reader and writer in sentences 18–19, to blocks in sentences 20–21 and to the design again in sentences 22–25.

Secondly, we can derive the situational context from this text. The purpose it is carrying out, to instruct in the placement of blocks, is seen in the wording. The wording is derived from the contributing features of register – field, mode, and tenor.

There is evidence for field in the lexical items *design, sides, take, put, line up, place, blocks,* and so on. That the mode is written can be seen in the simple clause structures which rely on nominal groups to convey much of the meaning (q.v. Halliday, 1985c). Tenor can be seen in the references to encoder and decoder in the Themes. The interpersonal relationship between them can be seen in the mood structure encoded as clauses of command and statement.

Mood and transitivity can be analyzed in a similar way. Using the SFM, further analysis of texture could be carried out – the structural and cohesive features that characterize text – in terms of information structure and focus (Given and New) and cohesion. In this brief introduction, however, I have performed only a limited thematic analysis to indicate the potential of the SFM to contribute to our understanding of the context–text relationship.

A more extensive systemic-functional analysis and comparison of texts by native speakers and second language learners of different levels of proficiency provide some important insights for language teaching:

1. Despite the diversity evident in the way texts are encoded, texts may be traced and related to the contexts in which they communicate meaning. There is a form–function relation. Students need to study the features of context more closely and be made aware of the options available to them as

examples of wording which can encode the text–context relationship.

2. The multi-functional nature of wording is apparent and important. It is possible, for example, to look at Themes and see features of mood and transitivity as well, and *vice versa*, since three kinds of meaning co-exist in the structure and lexis of language as message, interpersonal, and ideational meta-functions. The same lexical items in most cases encode or contribute to the encoding of more than one functional element in the grammar and thereby to the meaning of the text. This is an undeniable feature of language: grammatical structures and lexical items have more than one function in the realization of meaning. Awareness of this feature should guide our preparation of materials and syllabuses and be brought out by our communicative methodologies.

3. We see evidence in all texts for the remarkable diversity and creativity that mark language in use. The SFM of language identifies the options that contribute to this diversity. Our students also display such variety in their encoding of meaning. When a text deviates from our expectations (since our students do not have full command of the language code), our lexicogrammatical interpretation of the text must question its appropriateness for its context, since a functional description of wording is related to language use.

We need to consider how to stimulate the encoding and decoding of text with an emphasis on the communication of meaning in context. We also need to identify which methods of development, which choices of thematic, mood, ideational, information structures and cohesive devices warrant our students' attention. We do this to ensure the text–context relation so that our students can learn spoken and written language more effectively.

References

Brumfit, C. 1984. *Communicative Methodology in Language Teaching.* Cambridge: CUP.

Halliday, M.A.K. 1973. *Explorations in the Functions of Language.* London: Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K. 1985a. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar.* London: Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K. 1985b. Part A in M.A.K. Halliday and R. Hasan, *Language, Context, and Text: a Social-Semiotic Perspective.* Victoria: Deakin.

Halliday, M.A.K. 1985c. *Spoken and Written Language.* Victoria: Deakin.

McKay, S. and L. Rosenthal. 1980. *Writing for a Specific Purpose.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Raimes, A. 1983. Tradition and Revolution in ESL teaching. *TESOL Quarterly* 17 (4):535-552.

Rodgers, T. 1983. Communicative syllabus design and implementation: reflection on a decade of experience. SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, Eighteenth Regional Seminar, Singapore.

Widdowson, H. 1978. *Teaching Language as Communication.* Oxford: OUP.

ENGLISH FOR TRANSLATION

Candace Séguinot

When I was preparing for my trip to Japan, I read a guidebook for tourists. The book recommends that people who don't know Japanese use phrase books to learn enough of the language to get around but adds

> The only objection to. . .phrase books is that they are too correct. As a result, many phrases for even simple everyday needs come out rather long, and tourists have trouble remembering them. It is best to dispense with nonessentials. . . . Why should you care if you speak pidgin Japanese? Everyone knows you're a foreigner. . . . If you are worried about sounding too blunt or uncouth, you can always accompany your speech by a nice, friendly smile, and the Japanese will know that you're trying hard and they will readily forgive your grammatical lapses. (Namioka, 1979)

If we analyze this advice in the terms provided by Corder (1983) and Faerch and Kasper (1983), we see that the author is suggesting both a *learning strategy*, that is a way for the learner to build up or expand an *interlanguage*, and a *communicative strategy*, which is a way to compensate for inadequate language resources. The reader who has not studied Japanese is asked to realize that he or she will face problems, and should therefore develop a *systematic technique* for dealing with them. Two techniques in fact – a *formal reduction*

Candace Séguinot is an Assistant Professor at the School of Translation, York University, in Toronto, Canada. Since completing her Ph.D. in Linguistics at the University of Toronto, she has taught ESL, translation, and technical writing in Canadian universities.

strategy to *avoid error* and to *facilitate communication* and the use of a *co-operative strategy* – smiling.

This example illustrates some of the problems with strategy research. More specifically, strategy research deals largely with ESL in an institutional setting, and the recommendations that strategies be overtly taught in the classroom assume that they remain constant across programmes and levels. As the discussion which follows attempts to show, this is not necessarily the case.

As ESL classes for immigrants develop functional curricula, teachers are faced with an ironic dichotomy of language teaching versus social integration: the most effective means to a goal of integration may not involve the use of language. The language teacher may choose or be given a role of facilitator, pairing native English speakers with foreign or second language students, or arranging outings, to encourage language practice and acculturation. Students are given maps and asked to *use* the public transit system, not sit and practice drills about it. In other words, in reception classes there is a movement to teaching coping strategies, whether or not language is involved. It may in fact be difficult to predict what functions or notions will be needed by a mixed class of immigrants beyond the coping stage.

In ESP classes it is easier to predict the need for specific notions or functions. Vocabulary can be field restricted, and grammatical structures can be chosen to reflect those most frequently encountered in the profession or area of study. There is a wonderful example of how this selection works in the English reservation form sent out by the Japanese Inn Group; the form asks the prospective guest to please ask their questions in the order and form written on the brochure when calling to make reservations.

Academic English is a little more difficult to characterize. Preparation for college or university studies is task-oriented: the organization of essays and reports is generally part of the

curriculum. In response to research which has shown that preoccupation with surface accuracy can interfere with the production of effective writing (see Flower and Hayes (1980) for first language composing, and Jones (1980) for ESL writers), ESL classes in North America have taken an English-across-the-curriculum approach. This means that students are encouraged to work at their intellectual level on tasks similar to those of the disciplines they will encounter outside their language classes. The strategies of the academic English class encourage the creative use of limited resources. If the argumentative structure of an essay is well conceived, the accuracy of vocabulary or grammatical structures may receive less attention. It is here that Corder's advice about the need to teach resource expansion strategies rings truest.

However, just as the reduction strategies recommended by my guidebooks are inappropriate to teach a language for academic purposes, it seems clear that strategies taught either directly or indirectly in university language courses are not necessarily appropriate for students who go on to study translation.

There is some indication that the effectiveness of the use of strategies varies with language proficiency. One of the pioneering studies on language learning strategies (Bialystok 1979: 387) found that ". . .in Grade Ten greater overall use of the strategies is associated with achievement while in Grade Twelve the effects of the various strategies become more specialized." Bialystok also noted that achievement on formal tasks is modified by knowledge of the specific tasks, not by general exposure to language. This agrees with the findings of Smelcer *et al.* (1980) who found that a number of subjects who had rated their knowledge of French as excellent did not perform well on a simultaneous interpretation task, something for which they had no training. The experimenters also concluded that subjects focused too much on grammatical correctness, meaning that they did not cover the content

adequately, because their foreign language classes had trained them to pay too much attention to minor grammatical details.

From what is known about successful language learners, certain types of people are likely to make better translators than others; Naiman, Fröhlich *et al.* (1975). According to Nation and McLaughlin (1986), the more experienced language learner seems to have the ability to abstract structural information implicitly from linguistic stimuli without prompting. There may also be some predisposition to one of the two types of translation, see Larson (1984), though other theorists link this distinction to the search for formal and dynamic equivalence to task types; Nida (1964) and Newmark (1981).

Translation theory also tells us that translators vary procedures according to the type of text and that students of translation need to learn to make certain responses automatic; Nida (1964), Vinay and Darbelnet (1977). As Nation and McLaughlin have noted (1986), automatic processing frees the language user to apply controlled processing to higher-order tasks.

The fact that translation students need to develop automatic responses explains why creative strategies that are taught in programmes for academic English may be inappropriate. Students must value meaning over form, but must also aim for accuracy – and that within strict time limits. That is why translation programmes turn to non-communicative exercises like paraphrasing, rewriting, summary writing, précis writing, and directed reading which seem to produce strategies more appropriate to translation.

References

Bialystok, E. 1979. The role of conscious strategies in second language proficiency. *The Canadian Modern Language Review* 35, No. 3: 372-394.

Corder, S.P. 1978. Language-learner language. In *Understanding Second and Foreign Language Learning*, ed. J.C. Richards, pp. 71-93. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Faerch, C. and G. Kasper. 1984. Two ways of defining communication strategies. *Language Learning* 34, No. 1: 45-63.

Flower, L.S. and J.R. Hayes. 1980. The dynamics of composing: making plans and juggling constraints. In *Cognitive Processes in Writing*, eds. L.W. Gregg and E.R. Steinberg, pp. 31-50. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum Assoc.

Jones, C.S. 1980. Collecting data on the writing processes of L2 writers. Paper delivered at the TESL Assoc. of Ontario Conference.

Larson, M. 1984. *Meaning-based translation: a guide to cross-language equivalence.* Lanham, M.D. and London: University Press of America Inc.

Naiman, N., M. Fröhlich, and H.H. Stern. 1975. *The Good Language Learner.* Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Namioka, L. 1979. *Japan. A Traveler's Companion.* New York: Vanguard Press; Agincourt, Ont.: Gage Publishing.

Nation, R. and B. McLaughlin. 1986. Novices and experts: an information processing approach to the 'good language learner' problem. In *Applied Psycholinguistics* 7: 41-55.

Newmark, P. 1981. *Approaches to Translation.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

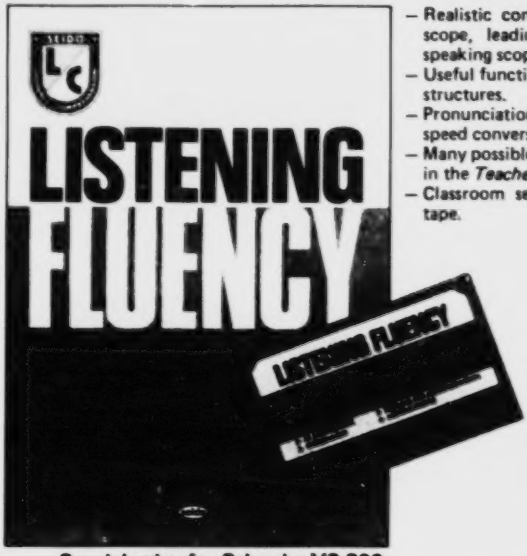
Nida, E. 1964. *Toward a Science of Translating.* Leiden: E.J. Brill.

Smelcer, P., N. Patwardhan, A. Wilsen, and W. von Raffler-Engel. 1980. Linguistic awareness of the translation process. *System* 8: 59-70.

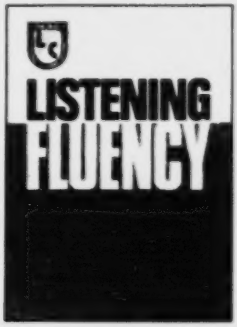
Vinay, J.-P. and J. Darbelnet. 1977, rev. ed. *Stylistique comparee du francais et de l'anglais.* Beauchemin: Montreal.

LISTENING FLUENCY

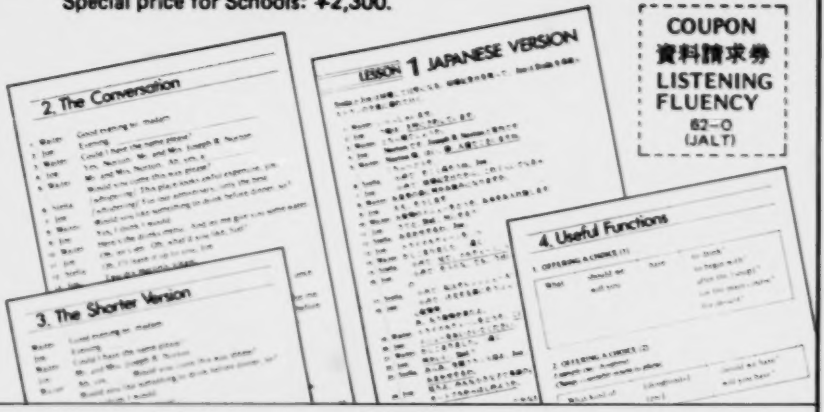
A NEW KIND OF LISTENING COMPREHENSION



- Realistic conversations for a wider listening scope, leading naturally into a narrower, speaking scope.
- Useful functions practiced in typical sentence structures.
- Pronunciation guidelines for hearing natural-speed conversation.
- Many possible classroom procedures described in the *Teacher's Guide*.
- Classroom set: the student's book and one tape.



Special price for Schools: ¥2,300.



COUPON
資料請求券
LISTENING
FLUENCY
62-O
(JALT)

seido language institute
12-6 Funado-cho, Ashiya-shi 659, Japan

seido セイドー外国語研究所
〒659 兵庫県芦屋市船戸町12-6 ☎0797(31)3452

TEACHING INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION TO STUDENTS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN JAPAN

John Ratliff

This presentation examines the use of intercultural communication as a teaching format for intermediate and advanced English classes in Japan. It is based on two years of teaching intercultural communication to high intermediate level English students at Sundai ELS Language Center in Tokyo.

Intercultural Communication and Cultural Awareness

Intercultural communication is defined as the study of communication that takes place between people from different cultures. It deals not only with the patterns of behavior within various cultures, but also examines the new forms of behavior that emerge when people from different cultural backgrounds interact. The field of intercultural communication derives its theoretical framework from many disciplines, including anthropology, linguistics, communication, psychology and sociology. But the actual development of the field in the United States dates from the early 1960's, when the problems of such groups as Peace Corps volunteers, American businessmen being posted overseas, and foreign students trying to adjust to life in the United States created the need for an effective method of improving communication across cultures. Since then, the field has developed steadily, both

John Ratliff received his Ph.D. in Communication and Japanese Studies from Columbia Pacific University. He has been active in TESOL for seven years, having taught in Mexico, the United States and, for the last three years, in Japan. He is currently teaching at Ibaraki Christian College.

theoretically and practically. Specifically, the teaching of intercultural communication has been moving from an academic comparison of the traits of various cultures towards a focus on the development of the student's general level of *cultural awareness.*

The inculcation of cultural awareness typically goes through several stages. First comes a growing awareness of culture and the way it affects human behavior. Different groups, in different situations, are shown to have provided for the universal needs of human beings in different, but equally valid, ways. One of the basic principles of intercultural communication is that no set of solutions is intrinsically "right" or "wrong" – only different. Each set of solutions, that is, each culture, has its own inherent logic, which can be best understood through an approach of *non-judgmental observation:* asking "what" and "how," rather than "why," and resisting the temptation to make immediate comparisons with one's mother culture.

Non-judgmental observation helps the student to overcome feelings of *ethnocentrism*, that is, the belief that the solutions of one's own culture are "natural" and "common sense," and would be seen as such by any reasonable, sensitive person. Each culture has its own characteristic form of ethnocentrism: for example, one merely has to compare the widespread belief in the United States that "everybody should learn English" with the equally ethnocentric belief on the part of many Japanese that "no foreigner can really learn Japanese."

Another aspect of growing cultural awareness involved in overcoming ethnocentrism is developing a *tolerance* of the *ambiguity* inherent in cross-cultural situations. Gradually one can gain the comfort necessary for *empathy* with and *respect* for the thoughts, feelings and aspirations of people from cultures very different from one's own.

When introducing these ideas to students, they are first asked to examine their own culture, in this case Japanese

culture, and then make comparisons with the target culture, which for the sake of this presentation will be assumed to be American. In doing this, the skill of non-judgmental observation is introduced. For example, the issue of stereotypes could first be raised by asking students about stereotypes within Japanese culture: for example, what stereotypes do Kanto people have of Kansai people, and vice versa? The lesson could then progress to stereotypes of Americans held by Japanese. The instructor might then reveal some of his or her own stereotypes of Japanese and what he or she has done to deal with them. This sort of discussion obviously requires a comfortable, non-threatening atmosphere in which the instructor provides a model of the non-judgmental, reflective listener who is also prepared to take risks in looking at his or her own beliefs and behavior.

TESOL and Communication Style

The usefulness of intercultural communication training in teaching English to speakers of other languages is clear. For both the ultimate goal is the development of effective communication. But it is important to note that problems of communication across cultures are often blamed on linguistic misinterpretations, when the misunderstanding or misbehavior more likely resides elsewhere: in the subtler but consistent patterns of behavior which become understandable when we appreciate differences in cultural values. In this sense, it becomes clear that one cannot become fluently bilingual without at the same time becoming *bicultural*, which involves taking on a second identity, a new personality.

Anyone bilingual in Japanese and English is particularly aware of the changes in personality that occur when switching from one language to the other. This is a reflection of the radically different *communication styles* of Japanese and American cultures. Generally, the most important aim of

communication in English is to convey clear and concise information about the speaker's opinions, desires, or mental or emotional states; Japanese communication style is more attuned to interpersonal harmony. For example, I have noted the consternation created when Japanese are first confronted by what for most Americans are quite ordinary and useful questions: "What do you think?," "What do you mean?," "What do you want?," and "How do you feel?" These questions call for a highly individualistic and verbal style of communication – for Americans "natural," for Japanese exceedingly strange.

It is essential for the teacher of intercultural communication to Japanese EFL students – indeed, any sojourner in Japan – to become thoroughly familiar with the basic differences in communication styles. Highly recommended for more on this subject is Ramsey and Birk (1983).

Teaching Intercultural Communication in Japan

The development of cultural awareness is demanding, sometimes frightening and painful, requiring the abandonment of the security of ethnocentric beliefs and the development of personal flexibility and a willingness to take risks. This is a challenge for anyone, but particularly for someone from Japan. Many of the basic values of Japanese culture, such as the sharp demarcation between *uchi no* and *soto no* (inside and outside), the sense of the uniqueness and infallibility of the Japanese culture and language – in short, those values characterized in Japanese as *shimaguni konjo*, ("island-country way of thinking") – tend to deny even the theoretical possibility of the development of genuine biculturalism. One is either 'in' or 'out.'

At the same time that these factors make the development of cultural awareness more difficult for Japanese, they also make it a potentially liberating process. For some Japanese,

a glimpse of this potential to experience a kind of internal freedom literally inconceivable within the confines of their own culture, serves as a powerful motivation to undertake the tremendous effort necessary to learn English. The Japanese students whom I have known to be most successful in learning English have been motivated by some form of this vision. A class in intercultural communication, if effectively organized around the cultural awareness model outlined above, has the potential to enlighten both student and teacher.

Teaching Technique

The practical limitations inherent in the typical teaching situation here in Japan are formidable. Intercultural interaction, except that of the teacher with the students, remains largely an abstraction for most students. In the case of the typical college-age student, the relative lack of maturity and passive attitude toward education only add to the problem.

This necessitates an emphasis on developing the students' awareness of Japanese culture, which can be done through observation, interview and role playing techniques. This can be interesting and enlightening to the students who, typically, have a low awareness of Japanese culture and the extent to which it shapes their lives. One of the most successful activities I tried was having my students interview their parents about how things had changed in Japan since they were teenagers, then make a report on the interview in English. In most cases this was the first time the students had talked of such matters with their parents, and it often gave them a personal insight into the social and historical changes in post-war Japan, as well as a glimpse into the attitudes and aspirations of their parents. Students can be empowered by becoming "expert" observers of their own culture.

When moving to the area of cross-cultural comparision,

there is a wealth of authentic American cultural material in Japan with which students are familiar, especially movies and popular music. Generally, however, they experience these things totally at the level of *spectacle*, not as something that relates to the realities of their own existence. Attempting to develop the qualities of empathy and respect is the key here. For example, I showed my students the recent American film *Mask*. We then used it as a basis for a discussion comparing and contrasting the modes of parent-child communication as well as attitudes toward the handicapped in Japan and the U.S. I've also used the songs of people like Bruce Springsteen and Billy Joel to illustrate the American emotional landscape. One student remarked: "I never knew the music I was listening to talked about people like me."

I also had the students go out into the streets of Tokyo in teams and interview English-speaking foreigners, asking them about their lives here and their attitudes toward Japan. This was the most popular single activity. Students said it really helped them in overcoming their fear of speaking English with native speakers: "I could talk to ordinary foreigners, not just English teachers."

It should again be emphasized that for this kind of class to be successful, the teacher must take pains to be a good role model of cultural awareness. Non-judgmental listening, tolerance of ambiguity, and, above all, showing respect are essential for the teacher of intercultural communication. The Japanese are acutely sensitive to our judgment of them. I sometimes think the most important thing to many of my students is to feel that I like them. This issue cannot be overstressed.

The course I taught had a syllabus of ten weeks, each week based on a chapter from Levine and Adelman's *Beyond Language* (1982), which I recommend for use with an intermediate or advanced class. The intercultural role plays were particularly effective. The chapter are set up functionally:

introductions, verbal patterns, nonverbal communication, personal relationships, family values, educational attitudes, work values, time and space patterns, cultural conflict and cultural adjustment. I also used Condon and Kurata's *What's Japanese about Japan* (1974) as a basis for discussion of Japanese culture; I liked the book, but my students complained that it was too old-fashioned. I used many articles from *The Japan Times*, *Time* and *Newsweek* on life in Japan and the U.S. I also strongly recommend Condon and Yousef (1975), Gaston and Clark (1984), and Kohls (1979) for valuable expositions of intercultural communication theory, and Ramsey and Birk (1983) for an excellent contrastive analysis of the communications styles of Japanese and Americans.

References

Condon, J. & K. Kurata. 1974. *In Search of What's Japanese about Japan*. Tokyo: Shufunotomo.

Condon, J. & F.S. Yousef. 1975. *An Introduction to Intercultural Communication*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill.

Gaston, J. & R.C. Clark. 1984. *Cultural Awareness Teaching Techniques*. Brattleboro, VT: Pro Lingua Associates.

Kohls, L.R. 1979. *Survival Kit for Overseas Living*. Chicago: Intercultural Press.

Levine, D.R. & M.B. Adelman. 1982. *Beyond Language: Intercultural Communication for English as a Second Language*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Ramsey, S. & Birk, J. 1983. Preparation of North Americans for interaction with Japanese: considerations of language and communication style. In Landis, D. & Brislin, R.W. (Ed.) *Handbook of Intercultural Training*, vol. 1. New York: Pergamon, pp. 227-259.

COGNITIVE STRATEGIES OF JAPANESE STUDENTS*

Linda Viswat
Cathy Duppenthaler
Natsumi Onaka

Introduction

The critical importance of learning strategies in second language learning has long been recognized. It is no exaggeration to say that students of similar linguistic ability will differ in linguistic performance according to the efficiency of their learning strategies.

Learning strategies can be divided roughly into three groups: metacognitive, cognitive, and functional (socio-affective and communicative). Cognitive strategies have been broadly defined by Gagne (1977) as "skills with which learners regulate or modulate their internal processes of (1) attending and selective perceiving; (2) coding for long-term storage; (3) retrieval; and (4) problem solving." Cognitive strategies are the tools which enable students to become autonomous learners. They are the skills which students possess which regulate how they learn, how they remember,

Linda Viswat received her M.Ed. from Temple University Japan. She is currently teaching at Himeji Dokkyo University.

Cathy Duppenthaler received her M.Ed. from Temple University Japan. She is currently teaching at Seibo Girls' High School and at Baika Women's College.

Natsumi Onaka received her M.A. from St. Michael's College, Vermont. She teaches at Shirayuri Gakuen, Morioka.

*This study was partially funded by a JALT Research Grant.

how they analyze and solve problems, and how they recall previously learned information. To the extent that students use cognitive strategies effectively, they become more efficient learners.

Metacognitive strategies are those which the learner uses to plan for learning. They include such functions as advanced planning, monitoring, self-evaluation, and selective attention. These strategies are powerful tools because they mean that the learner is in charge of deciding what, and to what extent, she will learn.

Bialystok's model of language acquisition (1978) provides a good basis for demonstrating that the conscious use of learning strategies is an essential part of language learning. She outlines three types of knowledge which the learner brings to the learning task: explicit linguistic knowledge, in current jargon, language which is learned; implicit linguistic knowledge, language which is acquired; and a general knowledge of the world. The type of strategy which a learner uses in any given situation depends on the type of knowledge required to complete a task.

Drawing on Bialystok's model of language acquisition it is possible to conceive of the schema shown in Figure 1.

Research in the area of learning strategies has concentrated primarily on language learning in an ESL context with scant attention having been paid to how they operate in an EFL situation. O'Malley and Chamot (1985) point out that "strategies introduced in a formal setting can contribute to implicit linguistic knowledge, and therefore to the students' ability to comprehend and produce spontaneous language." (559). This has particular significance in an EFL learning setting where the amount of input is limited, and where most language is introduced within the confines of the classroom.

Our research was undertaken with the aim of trying to determine the types of cognitive and metacognitive strategies which good language learners in Japan use. In particular

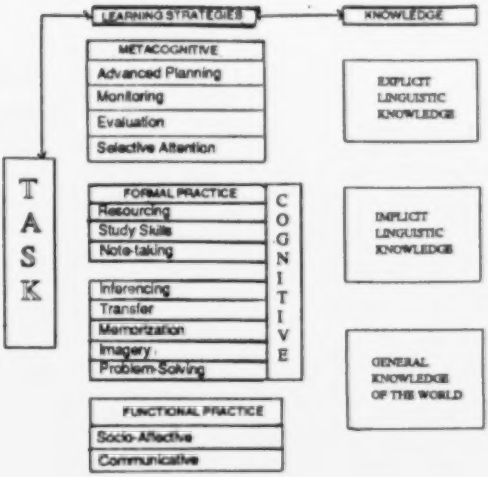


Figure 1

we were interested to find out if there are strategies which good language learners use which seem to be contrary to what is generally expected or indeed taught in schools, given that most language training in Japan is still done by the traditional grammar-translation approach. Despite the lack of emphasis on teaching communicative skills, some students do in fact acquire a certain degree of communicative competency in English. Is there anything about the way they approach the learning task which differs from students who are unable to communicate effectively?

Subjects

Our research population consisted of 38 students at a girls' high school in Osaka. All of the subjects were in their last year of senior high school. This particular age group was selected because we felt that older students would be more cognizant of their own learning strategies.

In this particular high school there are four classes at each grade level. Our population consisted of approximately equal numbers of students from the highest and lowest classes, the students being chosen randomly on the basis of student numbers: even-numbered students were selected from the high class and odd-numbered students from the lower class. Students who had lived abroad were excluded from the study.

Methods

The purpose of this study was to identify the learning strategies of successful learners of EFL. We hoped to be able to correlate the use of certain strategies with English oral proficiency.

To measure the students' language ability the following instruments were used:

1. The John Test: an oral placement test based on a series of pictures. It contains three parts, each of which tests a different skill. Part I tests aural comprehension. Students are directed to look at the pictures and are asked questions about them. Part II measures the ability of the students to produce connected discourse in the form of the past tense narrative. Part III tests the student's ability to ask questions. Directions for these questions range from "Ask me his name," to "Ask me what he would like to do when he finishes school."

2. The average of the results of the term-end exam scores in English for all three terms of the previous year and the first term of the current year; we wanted to see if there would be a correlation between achievement as measured by school tests and students' oral abilities.

To evaluate the students' strategies the following instruments were used:

1. A student questionnaire in Japanese which contained

questions designed to elicit information on study habits. We focused on 12 categories of language learning activities. For example, in the memorization category questions such as the following were asked: "When I have to memorize, I try to use word association or mnemonic devices." and "Memorization of patterns and words is a useful tool in learning English." In the self-monitoring category, the following types of questions were posed: "I always make an effort to use correct English pronunciation." and "In class I try to respond mentally to all the questions posed by the teacher."

2. A teacher questionnaire was used in order to check the validity of the student responses as well as to collect information on the student's classroom behavior. Teachers were asked: if the student seemed interested in English; if the student used reference books in and out of class; if the student asked questions of the teacher outside of class; if the student paid attention to her own and other students' answers; and so forth.

3. An interview in Japanese covering study habits and cognitive strategies was used to get open-ended answers to some of the questions the students had been asked in the questionnaire. Some of these questions were: "How do you study English?" "What do you do at home?" "Suppose you had to memorize 30 vocabulary items by tomorrow, what would you do? How would you memorize these words?"

The second part of the test was designed to try and elucidate the cognitive strategies the students use to accomplish language tasks. Two examples of the types of problems posed are:

1. The student was shown a card with the sentence:

The night was so _____ that not a sound was heard.

Four choices were given on the card:

a. quiet b. beautiful
c. dark d. dangerous

and asked to choose the word which would best complete

the sentence. She was then asked to explain how she made her selection.

2. The following words were read by the interviewer and students were then asked to remember as many as possible:

book	rain	girl	pencil
tree	mountain	mirror	apple
Japan	milk		

The students were then asked to explain how they were able to recall the words.

Results and Implications

We are reluctant to draw hasty conclusions based on the data collected until it has been completely analyzed; however the findings do seem to indicate that there is a strong correlation between classroom achievement and oral proficiency. What is most interesting is the fact that while all students who performed well in the oral assessment had high scores on the achievement tests, students who had high achievement scores did not necessarily do well in the test of oral proficiency. Furthermore, the results appear to show that the types of learning strategies which good language learners in Japan use are similar to those which have been described by Bialystok, Rubin, Stern, and others. That is, good language learners in Japan are willing to take more risks by, for example, inferring the meaning of a word based on the context; they monitor their own performance and that of others; they stress the importance of communicating meaning over grammatical accuracy – and they have better study skills. In addition, good language learners in Japan make use of some learning strategies which seem to be the result of the general learning environment in Japan, where memorization plays a key role. This is evidenced in the variety of mnemonic devices used by students which enable them to memorize long lists of vacabulary items in preparation for entrance

examinations.

Wenden (1985) and others have underlined the importance of teachers' awareness of their students' learning strategies, so as to be able to facilitate more efficient learning and enable students to become truly autonomous learners. Research into the cognitive strategies of students learning in an EFL environment has been neglected for the most part. As a result, not enough attention has been given to the development of materials which train students not only in learning the language but learning the process of learning itself. This is, after all, one of our main tasks in language teaching, to help students to become independent learners.

Bibliography

Bialystok, Ellen. 1978. A theoretical model of second language learning. *Language Learning* 28(1) 69-83.

Bialystok, Ellen. 1979. The role of conscious strategies in second language proficiency. *Canadian Modern Language Review.* 35(3): 372-394.

Gagne, Robert M. 1977. *The Conditions of Learning*, 155-179. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

O'Malley, J. Michael, Anna Uhl Chamot, Gloria Stewner-Manzanares, Rocco P. Russo, and Lisa Kupper. 1985. Learning strategy applications with students of English as a second language. *TESOL Quarterly* 19(3): 557-584.

O'Malley, J. Michael, Anna Uhl Chamot, Gloria Stewner-Manzanares, Lisa Kupper and Rocco P. Russo. 1985. Learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate ESL students. *Language Learning* 35(1): 21-46.

Reiss, Mary Ann. 1981. Helping the unsuccessful language learner. *The Modern Language Journal* 60: 121-128.

Rubin, Joan. 1981. Study of cognitive processes in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics* 11(2): 117-131.

Rubin, Joan. 1975. What the "good language learner" can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly* 9(1): 41-51.

Stern, H.H. 1975. What can we learn from the good language learners? *The Canadian Modern Language Review* 31: 304-318.

Wenden, Anita L. 1985. Learner Strategies. *TESOL Newsletter* XIX(5): 4-7.

RELC JOURNAL

A JOURNAL OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND RESEARCH IN SOUTHEAST ASIA

The RELC Journal: A Journal of Language Teaching and Research in Southeast Asia is one of the professional publications of the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) Regional Language Centre (RELC) which is located in Singapore. The main purpose of the journal is to disseminate information and ideas on theories, research, methods and materials related to language learning and teaching. Articles covering a wide range of topics in applied linguistics appear in its pages semiannually in June and December. Special features include information on current research projects in Southeast Asia, book reviews and review articles on topics related to language teaching. In its thirteen years of publication, the journal has reached a wide audience in eighty countries and has been rated as one of the leading journals in applied linguistics throughout the world. Scholars of recognized stature have used it as a means of presenting their findings and obtaining feedback on important issues in language and linguistics.

GUIDELINES

A companion publication, **Guidelines**, provides language teachers with practical and innovative techniques to enliven and enrich teaching in the language classroom. Each issue focuses on a particular theme.

The **Journal** and **Guidelines** are published twice a year and a subscription may begin with the June or December issue. The annual subscription is US$9.00 for each title. Individual copies may be purchased at US$6.00.

Please send your order to The Publications Officer
SEAMEO Regional Language Centre
RELC Building
30 Orange Grove Road
Singapore 1025
REPUBLIC OF SINGAPORE

Book Reviews

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION. Wolfgang Klein. Cambridge University Press, 1986. 191 pp.
UNDERSTANDING SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION. Rod Ellis. Oxford University Press, 1985. 327 pp.

Language teachers in general are a practical lot. This is especially true of teachers of foreign or second language in the post-audio-lingual period. (Given that *teacher of a foreign or second language* is an awkward locution, I will use the term *foreign-language teacher* in reference to anyone teaching a language to students for whom that language is foreign.) Teacher trainers (a category which includes this reviewer) are often confronted by emotional requests like the following: "Don't tell me about theories, **give me something that I can use in the classroom!**" It is thinking like this that makes a title like *Methods that work: a smorgasbord of ideas for language teachers* (Oller and Richard-Amato 1983) so appealing to the contemporary foreign-language teacher. On the other hand, a text with a title like *Second language acquisition* or *Understanding second language acquisition* is likely to be among those which the average foreign-language teacher would prefer to avoid. Consequently, before discussing how well either of these texts meets the needs of foreign-language teachers, it is necessary to discuss why understanding second language acquisition (SLA) must be included among the fundamental needs of the contemporary foreign-language teacher.

We can look to Ellis for an excellent answer to this question. He sets the stage for this answer by noting that

> All teachers have a theory of language learning. That is, they act in accordance with a set of principles about the way language learners behave. This theory, however, may not be explicit. In many cases the teacher's views about language learning will be covert and will only be implicit in what he does. (p. 2)

He then argues that the foreign-language teacher who operates with

an explicit set of principles is at a distinct advantage when it comes to developing or evaluating novel approaches to problems in language teaching.

> It is only when principles are made explicit that they can be examined with a view to amending or replacing them. Teachers who operate in accordance with implicit beliefs may be not only uncritical but also resistant to change. Alternatively they may shift and change in an unprincipled way, following blindly the latest fashion in language teaching. Teachers who make explicit the principles by which they teach are able to examine those principles critically.
>
> This book is based on the belief that teachers will do better to operate with a theory of language learning that is explicit and therefore open to revision, than with an implicit theory that may ignore what learners actually do. Greater consciousness of the complex process of language learning will not guarantee more effective teaching ... but it will stimulate critical thought, challenge old principles, and maybe suggest a few new ones. A conscious understanding of SLA is a basis for modifying and improving teaching. (pp. 2-3)

This argument is virtually unassailable; to disagree would entail supporting the proposition that a professional foreign-language teacher can be an unthinking automaton. Such a low standard of professionalism is simply unacceptable.

Having established the necessity of understanding SLA, we now come to the problem of how best to provide foreign-language teachers with useful information about SLA. It is at this point that we gain a distinct advantage by being in the position to compare Klein's approach with that of Ellis. Comparison of the two texts reveals that there are actually two important aspects of this problem. First, given that there are a number of different perspectives that one could take in organizing a discussion of SLA, one must decide which perspective on SLA will result in the discussion that is most informative to the foreign-language teacher. The perspective that is adopted ultimately dictates the general organizational scheme for the entire volume.

Once having settled on a particular organizational scheme, one must then decide how individual discussions therein are to be presented. Any discussion of SLA involves a balancing act of sorts, with presentation of the concrete data of SLA on one side of the fulcrum and summary of the relevant literature on the other. Klein and Ellis differ significantly in their respective approaches to both aspects of this problem.

Ellis approaches the organizational aspect of the problem from the perspective of learner language, or interlanguage, as it has come to be called. Following an introductory chapter, in which he defines terms and introduces key issues in SLA, Ellis systematically examines factors which have been hypothesized as having some effect on the development of any given learner's interlanguage. These factors include: (1) the learner's knowledge of his native language; (2) the learner's hypothesized innate language-learning faculty; (3) the linguistic input with which the learner must interact; (4) the strategies the learner adopts in interacting with this linguistic input; and (5) formal (i.e. classroom) language instruction.

Ellis also devotes considerable attention to his 'pet' issue, variability in interlanguage. This includes a valuable discussion of the significant and uncontroversial fact that there are differences between individual learners which result in differences between the respective interlanguages produced by those learners. Unfortunately, it also includes quite a bit more discussion than necessary (at least in a book intended to be a general introduction to research in SLA) of Ellis' controversial (but not idiosyncratic) position that the linguistic competence of an individual speaker of any natural language, including interlanguage, is variable. A final chapter examines seven (so-called) theories of SLA.

Aside from the inordinate amount of space devoted to laying the foundations for and presenting his misguided Variable Competence Model,[1] the organizational scheme that Ellis has adopted is logical and easy to follow. One could not ask for more from any textbook.

Unfortunately, there is a major flaw in the way that Ellis has chosen to present the discussions with which he elaborates upon this organizational scheme. The entire text reads like a literature review chapter for a doctoral dissertation.[2] In virtually every chapter, the reader is confronted by a series of summaries of the most relevant recent research in the particular area. Although these summaries are usually woven together in a reasonably coherent manner, the result is seldom an effective discussion.[3] It is a pity that Ellis consistently fails to illustrate his points with examples from interlanguage. Without such illustrative data, the average foreign-language teacher will experience great difficulty in recognizing the connection between Ellis' discussion and the language learning problems that the teacher faces every day in the classroom. The instructor who adopts *Understanding Second Language Acquisition* as a textbook for a course in SLA will either be forced to supplement the text with the necessary illustrative data or run the risk of being inundated by cries of "**give me something that I can use in the classroom!**"

Where Ellis' text excels, Klein's also excels. Indeed the organizational scheme that Klein has adopted seems tailor-made for an audience whose primary interest is language teaching. As Klein puts it

> The focus throughout is the *learner*, who is seen as being obliged by social circumstances to apply his language learning capacity to the available linguistic material. (p. 1)

Klein's focus on the learner becomes most apparent in Part II of the book, which comprises chapters 4 through 8. Part I effectively prepares the reader for this focus on the learner by providing a clear and concise global perspective on the field of SLA. This global look at SLA is extremely useful in attempting to reconcile distinct perspectives on SLA, like those adopted by Ellis and Klein, respectively.

In chapter 1, Klein defines terms and briefly surveys attempts at theoretical explanations of SLA. Unlike Ellis, Klein carefully avoids revealing his own theoretical stance, thereby leaving the reader free

to do what Ellis has challenged him to do; to submit his own theory of SLA to careful analysis by making it explicit. Klein's chapter 2, "Six dimensions of language acquisition", is a real gem. Indeed, it is the most successful overview of the process of SLA that I have ever seen. The six dimensions of SLA are identified in the following passage:

> ... the three components which determine the process of language acquisition – propensity, language faculty, and access to the language – together with the three categories which characterize the process – its structure, tempo, and end state – comprise the six basic dimensions of language acquisition ... (p. 35)

Klein's elaboration of these six dimensions is followed by a brief chapter in which he considers which of the dimensions are easiest for the foreign-language teacher to control. If the reader is interested in 'test-driving' this text, chapters 2 and 3 are the ones to look at. I guarantee that you won't stop reading until you've reached the end of the book.

Part II, "From the learner's point of view", begins with an overview of the formidable task facing the foreign-language learner. In chapter 4, Klein analyzes this task into four fundamental problems:

(1) *the problem of analysis*:

> One of the speaker's problems is to segment the stream of acoustic signals into constituent units and to bring the latter into line with the parallel information on concurrent events which constitutes the situational context of the utterance. This is the problem of analysis. (p. 59)

(2) *the problem of synthesis*:

> Suppose a learner has coped with the problem of analysis to some modest extent: his knowledge of the language comprises fifty words: some nouns, some verbs, a few particles, and perhaps the personal pronouns *I* and *you*.. (This happens to be the vocabulary of a foreign worker who had lived in West

> Germany for five years; see Klein 1981.) In order to produce utterances that go beyond one-word sentences, the learner has to try and put these words together. This we call the learner's synthesis problem: strictly speaking, the problem of synthesis of words. A similar problem exists for sounds. (pp. 60-61)

(3) *the embedding problem*:

> ... utterances are generally embedded in copious contextual information and whenever a person intends to speak, he is bound to fit his utterance into this information flow. This is the embedding problem of the speaker. (p. 61)

(4) *the matching problem*:

> In order to improve his command of a second language, the learner must continuously compare his current language variety with the target variety. This matching problem tends to become more and more difficult as the discrepancy between the two diminishes. (p. 62)

These four problems are discussed separately in chapters 5 through 8. With respect to the manner in which those subsequent discussions are presented, Klein excels where Ellis fails. Klein makes very effective use of illustrative examples from his own research as well as from other published work. Klein doesn't overwhelm the reader with data, but he provides enough to make clear the important points he discusses. Some readers may be scared off by the fact that some of the data are from (interlanguage approximations of) languages other than English. This should not be a problem, however, because Klein has provided English glosses of the data whenever necessary.

With respect to the mechanics of presentation, both books have an occasional typographical error and Klein's prose periodically betrays the fact that his book is a revised and up-dated translation from a text originally presented in German. Neither of these problems is grave enough to distract the reader from the issues at hand. The only major distraction that this reader experienced was caused by Ellis' failure to identify in his list of references the work

he refers to in Chapter 10 as "Long (1983e)".

For the foreign-language teacher with little time to spare, I strongly suggest taking the time to read Klein's text from cover to cover. For the teacher trainer planning an introductory course in SLA, I recommend including both texts on your list of required reading. A very useful course could result from structuring the syllabus following Klein's lead and periodically drawing upon material from Ellis. In any case, the student of SLA will find both texts to be useful resources.

Reviewed by Bruce W. Hawkins
State University of New York at Buffalo

Notes

[1]For a clear discussion of the misguidedness of the Variable Competence Model, cf. Gregg (to appear).

[2]There can be no doubt that Ellis has been very thorough in surveying the literature, as a brief review of the list of references in the back of the book will reveal.

[3]Chapter 2, "The role of the first language", is a significant exception. In this particular chapter, Ellis provides a critical review of the contrastive analysis hypothesis and a useful summary of the behaviorist account of language learning from which the hypothesis was extrapolated. Because the discussion of these topics focuses on their historical importance, the summary style of presentation that Ellis has adopted is quite effective.

References

Gregg, K.R. (To appear.) Linguistic perspectives on second language acquisition: What could they be, and Where can we get some? In S. Gass and J. Schachter (Eds.), *Second language acquisition – a linguistic perspective*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Klein, W. 1981. Some rules of regular ellipsis in German. In W. Klein and W.J.M. Levelt (Eds.), *Crossing the boundaries in linguistics. Studies presented to Manfred Bierwisch*. Dordrecht: Reidel.

Oller, J.W., Jr. and P.A. Richard-Amato (Eds.). 1983. *Methods that work: a smorgasbord of ideas for language teachers*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

TECHNIQUES AND PRINCIPLES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING (Teaching Techniques in English as a Second Language Series). Diane Larsen-Freeman. New York: Oxford University Press. 142 pp.

Diane Larsen-Freeman's *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* (hereafter *TPLT*) is a volume that provides a good deal of basic, useful information about eight language teaching methods. It uses a series of observations, explanations, reviews, and questions, repeating this format throughout each chapter. The book views "method" as consisting of instructional techniques and underlying principles and selects eight methods from a spectrum of the traditional to the fashionable, both famous and infamous, from Grammar-Translation and Audiolingualism to Suggestopedia and Total Physical Response. My review begins with an examination of the format that *TPLT* uses to present the four methods just mentioned, plus Direct, Silent, Way, Community Language Learning, and Communicative methods, then moves to a discussion of some problems that exist in its assertions and philosophy, and concludes with recommendations for its use.

Each chapter begins with a brief introduction including that method's origin, its place in modern language teaching history, and references to its theoretical background, principles, and techniques. The reader then enters a hypothetical classroom to "observe" a lesson in progress. While no transcript or lesson plan is provided to orient the reader to the class, narration and description are instead combined by Larsen-Freeman to offer a clear, unbiased account of each "highly idealized session."

Following this classroom experience is a series of related observations and principles, listed side by side, ranging from single sentences to concise paragraphs. Next, principles are reviewed in the form of answers to ten practical questions. These same questions concerning the teacher, learner, teaching process, learning process,

and native and target language and culture are asked in every chapter. Techniques are then reviewed along with any essential materials, such as charts and rods for the Silent Way, or classroom set-up, such as soft music and comfortable furnishings for Suggestopedia. Collectively, these aspects comprise the heart of Larsen-Freeman's compact but thorough discussion of method, and while the descriptions are sufficient for experienced teachers, additional prior knowledge may be needed by, or assumed for, teachers in training.

The concluding sections of each chapter offer reflective questions to help the reader assimilate and synthesize the information, as well as activities designed to check the reader's understanding and apply it to his/her situation. Larsen-Freeman used such exercises successfully in an earlier work (1983), and the inclusion of this element adds a dimension of closure to the instructional value of *TPLT*. As a final feature, each chapter concludes with a short list of extra reading. The book's format is consistent and, aided by clear print and numbering, helpful sketches, and ample use of white space, allows for ease of comparing and contrasting the eight methods. For those in the TESL/TEFL community who want a clear, concise, straight-forward presentation of methods by a prominent author-educator-researcher, *TPLT* will be a welcome resource.

My response to *TPLT*, while generally positive, is slightly less than the whole-hearted endorsement given to it by Oxford University Press series editors, Russell N. Campbell and William E. Rutherford, who cite its inception as being critical to the daily needs – ideas, suggestions, explanations, demonstrations, strategies – of both practicing and student teachers and hail it as "most illuminating and imaginative in meeting a critical need" (p. viii). I feel that some problems exist in its orientation and perspective. The criticism I have of *TPLT*, therefore, is directed primarily at certain assertions and omissions in its prefaces and introductory chapter which belie its espoused neutrality and confuse me as a reader, rather than at what it

says about method – chapters two through nine are fine, within the author's chosen scope. Granted, no one book can cover all the bases; to its credit, *TPLT* does not even try. This is more of an overview or "how-to" book than an exhaustive handbook of theory and practice. And if the author and editors had limited their description of and projections for *TPLT* to being an overview or starting point in considering the eight methods and one that promotes an ease of comparison/contrast between them, I would have little argument with them.

However, Larsen-Freeman and Campbell and Rutherford create a problem by stating that *TPLT* is designed to afford practicing and pre-service teachers greater familiarity with method, their idea of a "critical need." My experience and observations suggest that explanations and examples of techniques and principles don't provide sufficient background in themselves, that the critical need is not to generate more classroom "how-to" books. Greater is the need to produce books that promote development of the background and corresponding competencies needed to create or select appropriate instructional frameworks, knowledge of method being but one aspect, as Dubin and Olshtain (1986) seem to suggest.

Larsen-Freeman also asserts "no one-to-one correspondence between technique and method" (p. xi), that techniques can be shared across methods. Her contention may have some truth to it as her cassette-chalkboard example of recording student speech demonstrates (p. 2), but not all techniques lend themselves to such crossing over; she is remiss in not providing a suitable warning example. Larsen-Freeman further admonishes the reader not to be too quick in dismissing techniques seemingly impossible to apply or adapt or those apparently incompatible with his/her beliefs, stating that "the way teachers work with them is what makes the difference" (p. 2). Agreed, this makes *a* difference ... but not *the* difference. It's the student that makes the difference (Naiman, Frölich & Stern, 1975), and there is little in *TPLT* that addresses student make-up variable, a

variable so fundamental to successful instruction.

Regarding these matters, Larsen-Freeman's statements are surprisingly incomplete and naive. The growing eclectic trend in our profession, which she is endorsing, finds the teacher picking and choosing techniques and procedures from various methods and approaches in response to the daily demands of instruction. There is a danger in this eclectic position, for without a central theoretical framework, the instructor might choose incoherent or conflicting elements that could prove harmful to language acquisition. Stephen Krashen (1983), in a side remark, has labeled this scenario "an obscenity." This concern is also reflected in the works of a number of other scholars such as H. Douglas Brown (1980), who supports only an "enlightened" eclecticism neither based on trial and error nor guided by attractiveness, but one stemming from an integrated, broadly-based theory of second language acquisition.

Even the call for a "multi-faceted" approach (Sharwood Smith, 1981) and an "efficaciously-balanced" activities approach (Harmer, 1983) to teaching are directed more toward curriculum design based on adult learning theory than endorsing the "whatever works" nature of eclecticism. I don't believe that the former justifies the latter. Earl Stevick (1975), while promoting the improvement and adaptation of some lessons and techniques, concludes that important distinctions exist between what he considers the productive versus reflective and receptive versus defensive learning of other languages. Psychologically, much more underlies the learning processes behind method than *TPLT* suggests. And borrowing from education, John Smith and Louis Heshusius (1986) trace the long-standing debate over quantitative versus qualitative research methods, going from conflict to detente to cooperation, and conclude that compatibility across paradigms is unsupportable. The implications for TESL/TEFL, based on both theory and practice, are that Grammar-Translation is incompatible with Suggestopedia, as is Audiolingualism with TPR.

Another danger for Larsen-Freeman and her editors in advocating

an eclectic philosophy resides in the identity of the reader. No distinction is made between the trained professional, one still in training, or the untrained novice abroad. The reader is encouraged not to limit his imagination – and perhaps rightly so – but is nowhere cautioned about the hazards at the other extreme, that of having no theoretical or working model. This is a "do-it-yourself" approach, at best, and lacks appropriate consideration on the author's part regarding the disparate experience of her audience.

This is also a teacher-centered view of successful teaching that evaluates on the basis of whether or not something "works" in the classroom. But successful teaching is more than the well-lubricated administration of techniques. I submit that successful teaching is more accurately a student-centered phenomenon that helps individuals move nearer overall language goals, while being consistent with a well-framed, cohesive, larger picture which includes many factors that *TPLT* doesn't address, such as the divergent cognitive and affective styles and strategies of students, the various needs each individual brings to the classroom, and curriculum/course development, to name but a few. *TPLT* doesn't attempt to be all things to all people, but when it simplistically implies that an adequate level of sufficiency can be found between its covers, it overlooks a lot.

In addition, a text intended for teacher training should clearly define its place in the field relative to its purposes and those books already in print; *TPLT* fails to do this, but it is perhaps more the fault of the series editors and publisher than the author. Yet because it asserts itself as a text that meets a critical need, one for present and future teachers, and one that promotes plurality of method, greater breadth and depth in scope and demarcation are needed. Contrary to Campbell and Rutherford's problematic assertions, there is much classroom instructional material available to our profession. However, I believe that fewer teachers lack expertise in method than in theory or curriculum.

Oxford University Press should also take greater responsibility in pointing out to the reader the place of this volume in relation to others about learning, language acquisition, curriculum, etc., in order to clarify all that is implied by method, whether or not they publish such texts themselves. For the sake of clearer reference within the profession, *TPLT* should also address the ESL-EFL-EIL distinctions more substantially (Richards, 1978), as well as provide more back-ground information about method on a "meta-level," particularly relative to the work of Edward Anthony (1963) and subsequent reformers (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Such omissions detract from the book's comprehensiveness and utility.

My suggestions for *TPLT* are influenced by all of the above, as well as TESOL publications regarding teacher certification and preparation (1975) and core standards for professional programs (1985). In all, this is not really a book best designed for the practicing professional to sample; that kind of exposure and practice regarding method should be more the province of teacher training or more detailed personal investigation. It should be useful for the inquisitive professional, however, as a quick reference text for any of a variety of purposes (e.g., closer inspection of colleagues' methods or reference citations for research). More accurately, *TPLT* is a teacher preparation text best suited for collateral reading, easy reference, and discussions at the undergraduate level, rather than being the central text around which to build a graduate course. Its implementation should follow course work in theoretical foundations and precede the in-depth study of methods of individual interest. In such contexts, *TPLT* will be a valuable resource for the TESL/TEFL community.

Reviewed by D.R.M. Stone
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

References

Anthony, E.M. 1963. Approach, method and technique. *English Language Teaching, 17.*

Brown, H.D. 1980. *Principles in language learning and teaching.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Celce-Murcia, M. and D. Larsen-Freeman. 1983. *The grammar book: An ESL/EFL teacher's course.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Dubin, F. and E. Olshtain. 1986. *Course design: Developing programs and materials for language learning.* New York: Cambridge.

Harmer, J. 1983. *The practice of English language teaching.* New York: Longman.

Krashen, S.D. 1983. Second language acquisition theory and the preparation of teachers: Toward a rationale. In J.E. Alatis, H.H. Stern and P. Strevens (Eds.), *Applied linguistics and the preparation of second language teachers: Toward a rationale* (Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Naiman, N., M. Frölich, and H.H. Stern. 1975. *The good language learner.* Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Richards, J.C. 1978. Introduction: Understanding second and foreign language learning. In J.C. Richards (Ed.), *Understanding second and foreign language learning: Issues and answers.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Richards, J.C. and T.C. Rodgers. 1986. *Approaches and methods in language teaching: A description and analysis.* New York: Cambrige.

Sharwood Smith, M. 1981. Consciousness-raising and the second language learner. *Applied Linguistics, 2,* 2.

Smith, J. and L. Heshusius. 1986. Closing down the conversation: The end of the quantitative-qualitative debate. *Educational Researcher, 15*(1).

Stevick, E. 1975. *Memory, meaning and method: Some psychological perspectives on language learning.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

TESOL. 1975. *Guidelines for the certification and preparation of teachers of English to speakers of other languages in the United States.* Washington, DC: Author.

TESOL. 1985. *Statement of core standards for language and professional preparation programs.* Washington, DC: Author.

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

The *JALT Journal* welcomes submission of articles which contribute to the field of foreign language teaching and learning in both the theoretical and practical domains, especially in the following areas: 1) curriculum, methods and techniques; 2) classroom observation; 3) teacher education and training; 4) cross-cultural studies; 5) language learning and language acquisition; 6) overviews of research and practice in related fields.

In addition, the editors encourage submissions which examine issues of research and practice within the Japanese context, although articles of interest to an international audience are always appreciated. The editors also invite the contribution of short articles, book reviews of an extended nature, as well as commentary on material that has appeared in previous issues of the *Journal*.

Manuscripts should be no longer than 30 pages, typed on A4 paper and double-spaced. The *Journal* conforms to APA style and the following may be considered a general guide. Reference citations should be placed in the body of the text in parentheses with the author's last name, date of the work cited and, where appropriate, page numbers. Footnotes for substantive information should be minimised. Authors are responsible for complete and correct information in the reference list and block quotations.

Manuscripts are subject to blind review by two reviewers. The author's name and footnotes that identify the author should appear on the cover sheet only.

Submit **three** copies of the manuscript, an abstract of less than 200 words, a running head title of about five words, and a biographical sketch of not more than 50 words. Wherever possible, the editors would be pleased to receive Japanese

translations of substantive article abstracts.

Papers submitted to the *Journal* should not have been published previously, neither should they be under consideration for publication elsewhere. It is regretted that manuscripts cannot be returned.

Apart from book reviews, all manuscripts and inquiries should be directed to Andrew Wright, *JALT Journal*, #505 C.I. Mansion, Yamate-dori 1-28, Showa-ku, Nagoya 466, Japan. Telephone: (052) 833-7534.

Book review material should be sent to Jim Swan, JALT Book Review Editor, Aoyama 8-122, Nara 630.

Inquiries about advertising should be directed to the JALT Central Office, c/o Kyoto English Center, Sumitomo Seimei Bldg., Shijo-Karasuma Nishi-iru, Shimogyo-ku, Kyoto 600. (075) 221-2376.

THE LANGUAGE TEACHER 第11巻 8号 特別増刊号
JALT JOURNAL 第8巻 第2号

昭和62年 6月25日 印刷
昭和62年 7月 1日 発行

発行人 全国語学教育学会(JALT)事務局長
THOMAS N. ROBB

発行所 JALT本部
〒600 京都市下京区烏丸四条西入ル
住友生命ビル8階K.E.C.内
TEL (075) 221 - 2376

印刷所 厚進社
〒530 大阪市北区天満2丁目13-3
TEL (06) 351 - 8795

256

from Houghton Mifflin:

The text for students who mean business

Joseph F. Buschini and Richard R. Reynolds
352 pages | 1980 | Instructor's Manual with Tests, Transparencies
Editorial Advisor: Mikio F. Nakamura, President, Japan Business English Association

Comprehensive, thoroughly researched text teaches students to improve business communication skills. Provides step-by-step instruction in writing and revising letters, memos, reports, and documents. Style, punctuation, and grammar guidelines in each chapter reinforce the basics of good writing.

- comprehensive coverage of essential business topics
- authoritative style guides
- developmental writing assignments and hundreds of exercises
- chapter on world trade communications
- up-to-date computer terminology
- simulations of international business transactions and communications with focus on Japanese and U.S. companies

ENGLISH ALFA

The complete English program that teaches students how to use the language and how the language works

For adoption consideration, request an examination copy from

Yohan Publishers Service Department, 14-9 Okubo 3-chome, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160, Japan
Tel. 03-208-0181

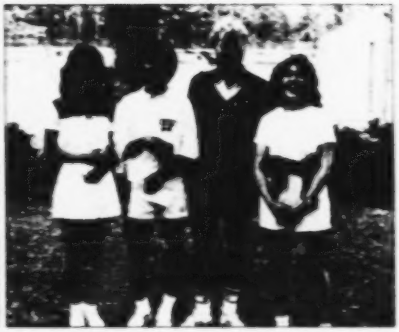
© 1980 HMCo. All rights reserved.

Houghton Mifflin One Beacon Street
Boston, Massachusetts 02108, U.S.A.

ale

Make their English REAL !!!

Motivate your students with opportunities to use their English outside the classroom !!!



PUT LIFE INTO THEIR ENGLISH and ENGLISH INTO THEIR LIVES with an ACTUAL LIVING ENGLISH SEMINAR

ALE seminars are guided activities which integrate English into vacation-like events. We offer 23 low-priced seminars each year: 11 overseas, and 12 within Japan. In addition, ALE conducts free weekend support activities twice each month in ten cities throughout Japan. ALE programs are adjusted to the level, interest and need of each group: everything from casual to intensive courses, from parties and excursions to weekend and weeks-long travel--plus just about anything that's fun, safe, and legal. **ALE seminars are an excellent way to build greater rapport among your students, to reinforce their English, and to refresh their motivation to learn.** This results in a livelier classroom, more to talk about, and lower student turnover... plus travel and profit for you*.

HAWAII – ALASKA – USA MAINLAND – EUROPE – HONG KONG – SAIPAN – GUAM – AUSTRALIA – NEW ZEALAND – BALI – FIJI – ALL OVER JAPAN, and more.

Prices include airfare, first-class hotels and inns, English activities & instruction, sightseeing tour, welcome party, full-time native English speaker staff, n.s. teachers (this could be you), local guides, tour insurance and, on Japan seminars, free or discount use of sports facilities.

A few of our Oversees and Domestic Seminars for 1987

Hong Kong (4 days) **¥49,000**
USA West Coast (7days) **¥199,000**
Hawaii (Waikiki) (7 days) **¥89,000**
Zao (3 days) Skiing, snow play **¥9,900**
Little America (3-10 days) from **¥5,000**
Suzuka (3 days) driving/racing **¥15,000**

***If you want to know more, call or write to: Guy Cihi, Vice President, International Resources, Ichigaya Sumitomo Bldg. 10F**
1-1 Ichigaya Honmura-cho, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 162 Tel: (03) 235-0495

International Resources... for 12 years, the leader in English language seminars.